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ABSTRACT

This document consists of the three separately-published annual issues of the Hong Kong Teachers' Association Journal of Education, "New Horizons," for the years 1992, 1993, and 1994. Issues contain articles on a variety of topics at all levels of education. Some articles are in English, some in Chinese. Topics include: compulsory education in Hong Kong and Guangzhou; implementation of 9-year compulsory education in mainland China, Taiwan, Hong Kong; centralization versus decentralization in curriculum development: Hong Kong and Macau; decentralization of basic education in China; early childhood educator training in Hong Kong; heredity and environment: implications for teaching; contextual prerequisites for understanding: comprehension and recall; achieving Effective School status through the School Management Initiative; Education Commission Report No. 5 and organization of teachers; influence of the School Management Initiative on secondary school policy formation; administration of Chinese language teaching; Chinese writing instruction; Kodaly Method and music teaching for handicapped children; secondary school science instruction; language use patterns in higher education; class newsletters; written feedback in writing instruction; oral English instruction; curriculum design and innovation; language teacher attitudes toward dialectal usage; English second language teaching; the whole language approach to teaching; mathematics instruction; enhancing critical thinking; Orff method of music instruction; classroom interaction of preschoolers with mental retardation; physical education; instructional quality in expanding higher education; values education; schoolchild suicide; teacher associations; home-school links; teaching careers; English teacher attitudes; academic standards; oral testing; and business education. (MSE)

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# NEW HORIZONS

No. 33 November 1992

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# 教育曙光

第三十三冊
一九九二年十一月

香港教師會
教育學報

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION
HONG KONG TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

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# 香港教師會

## 簡介

香港教師會成立於一九三四年，以促進教育同工之間的密切合作、提高教育專業人員的地位、維護會員的權益、增進會員的福利、加強國際的了解爲宗旨。香港教師會除了是本港一個教育團體以外，同時亦是多個國際性組織，如世界教師會、國際自由教師工會及國際閱讀協會會員。

香港教師會的週年學術活動有：（一）教育研究大會，如一九九一年舉辦的「九十年代普及教育的挑戰」研究大會等；（二）本港教育專題研討會，如一九九〇年至一九九二年間舉辦的「幼稚園、小學與中學的銜接研討會」、「特殊學校音樂教育研討會」及「中學新任教師座談會」等；（三）定期出版「教育曙光」。近年舉辦的國際學術活動，則有一九九〇年與國際自由教師工會聯合會合辦的第六屆及第七屆香港地區教育團體研討會，以及一九九二年主辦的「我們的下一代 —— 大陸、台灣、香港、澳門基礎教育研討會」。

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# 編者語

作爲一份爲教育界服務的刊物，*教育曙光*希望能成爲一個討論的園地，讓幼稚園到大專界的教師、學校行政人員、輔動工作者、教育學者及研究人員可以交流與發表他們從實踐與研究所得的新思維與發現。各界對本刊的「徵稿」反應甚爲熱烈，近年來我們收到的文稿越來越多。這表徵著教育界對於促進教育專業的發展極爲關注，實在是一個可喜的現象，而*教育曙光*能夠成爲表達這份關注的園地，使我們感到榮幸。另一個可喜的現象是這兩期的作品中，越來越多作品是以合作的形式進行的。對於教育界同行能聯手共同研究教育問題，我們不單感到欣喜，更極爲鼓勵。

本期（第33期）的主題是關於華人社會的基礎教育，與香港教師會本年的週年研討會配合。有關這個主題，本期共收錄了四篇文章。其他的文章則涉及本地多方面的教育問題，其中包括學術論文及觀點與評論。此外，跟以往一樣，本期設有「課程與教育」一欄。這欄也收錄了一些極具創意而有趣味的報告。

本期*教育曙光*有了一項改進文稿質素的突破：就是我們實施了文稿評審制度，邀請編委會以外的有關專家就來稿進行審批。於此，我們對所有特約評審員的支持及其獨具慧眼的回應與評語致以萬二分謝意。相信來稿不論採納與否，其作者必定從中得益。此外，我們亦向投稿的作者致謝，希望你們感到爲教育曙光的讀者撰稿是值得的，並希望你們繼續爲他們撰稿。從1993年開始，我們整年都會徵收稿件，請參閱本期的「徵稿」啟事。我們非常希望更多讀者投稿，我們尤其希望刊登來稿。

# From the Editors

As a journal primarily for all educators from kindergartens to the tertiary sector, *New Horizons* sees its role as a forum for teachers, school administrators, persons with pastoral duties, educationists and researchers to exchange new insights and discoveries derived from their professional practices and inquiries. The editors of *New Horizons* are happy to report that in response to our Call for Papers, there has been a promising increase in the number of papers sent to us in recent years. This is a good sign which indicates growing support for stimulating and enhancing professional development through *New Horizons*. It is also delightful to see in this issue (as in the last one) a blossoming interest in collaborative work of various kinds.

The major theme of No. 33 of *New Horizons* is on issues related to basic education in the Chinese context, which coincides with the theme of the annual conference of the Hong Kong Teachers' Association this year. There is a collection of four papers on this theme. The other papers represent a range of interests in local educational topics. Some of these are academic papers; others offer comments on issues of professional concerns. As in the last few issues, this year's Curriculum and Instruction section has been enriched by very interesting reports on innovative projects and teaching ideas.

Finally, No. 33 of *New Horizons* has made a qualitative breakthrough this year: a paper reviewing procedure was established whereby reviewers outside the Editorial Committee were invited to comment on the submissions. The Editorial Committee would like to take this opportunity to thank all our paper reviewers for their support, critical feedbacks and comments, which benefited the authors of both selected and unselected papers. We would also like to thank all those who have sent papers to us. We hope they have found it worthwhile to write for the readers of *New Horizons* and will continue to write for them. From 1993, *New Horizons* will start receiving submissions throughout the year. Please refer to the Call for Papers. We hope more of our readers will write, and we look forward to publishing your papers.

# 教育曙光第三十三期 New Horizons No. 33

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第三十三期・一九九二年十一月 No. 33, November 1992

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教育曙光第33期，1992年

# 香港與廣州義務教育發展的經驗與反省

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香港大學　　廣州市教育科學研究所

本文嘗試探討義務教育的源起，與及義務教育是在怎樣的社會、文化和經濟條件底下在港穗兩地推行。本文亦描述了兩地義務教育發展的概況，檢討其發展經驗，指出兩地義務教育實施的困難和問題，並嘗試對整個義務教育的問題作出反省。通過對兩地義務教育發展的研究，本文指出成功的義務教育的實施，有賴於有利的社會、文化和經濟條件、有效的規劃和行政措施、以及民間的力量。在義務教育的實施過程中，往往要面對種種矛盾和問題，諸如質與量的矛盾、地區發展差異的矛盾、人口增長的問題，以及失學的問題等等。可是儘管義務教育的實施遇到了種種的困難和問題，但三思之後，發覺很多困難和問題，其實不是義務教育本身的問題，而是在推行義務教育的時候，由於教育制度缺乏適應性、社會人士（包括教師和學生）對義務教育的觀念有錯誤的理解、對義務教育的效果有不當的期望所導致的。義務教育其實標誌着一個新的教育時代的開始，但這個新時代卻要求我們對教育的期望有所轉變，對新的教育模式有所探索，以及對教育內容與教學方法有相應的調節來配合。

## Lessons from the Implementation of Compulsory Education in Hong Kong and Guangzhou

This paper outlines the origin of compulsory education, and discusses the social, cultural and economic conditions under which compulsory education was implemented in Hong Kong and Guangzhou. It also delineates the development of compulsory education in both places, and examines the problems and dilemmas to be faced in the process of implementing compulsory education. Drawing upon the experience of developing compulsory education in both places, this paper discusses some of the issues related to compulsory education. It points out that successful implementation of compulsory education is attributed to favourable social, cultural and economic conditions, effective planning and policy-making, and the contributions of the private sector. However, the implementation of compulsory education is always faced with such dilemmas as quantity versus quality and regional disparities, and such problems as population expansion and attrition.Moreover, there are other criticisms such as falling educational standards and rising student behavioural problems. Nevertheless further thought suggests that many of theproblems are not due to the nature of compulsory education itself, but the lack of flexibility and adaptability in the education system, and the lack of change of expectations towards the effects of compulsory education. Compulsory education actually marks a new age in the development of education, but its success relies upon the accompaniment of corresponding changes in people's expectation, investigation of new modes of education, and adaptability of teaching contents and methods.

## 引言：義務教育的源起與背景

義務教育又稱爲強迫的普及教育。所謂強迫教育，是指其法律上的強迫性。所謂普及教育，是針對整個國家或社會的一致性。所謂義務教育，則是指接受教育不單是兒童應享受的權利，也是應盡的義務（楊亮功，1961，頁13）。以上這幾個名詞，現已互爲通用。有些人在爲義務教育下定義時，索性全部徵用上述有關的名詞，將義務教育定義爲「全民普及性、強迫性、最低限度的國民教育制度」（鄧萃英，1961，頁1）。作爲一種制度，義務教育大概有以下三個特點：(1)給予立法保證。(2)給予經濟保證（即提供免費教育）。(3)義務教育的年限不等，最短者五年，最長者十二年；但一般而言，大都由五歲或六歲開始，直至十五歲或十六歲（杭州大學，1988，頁40；河北省，1986）。

義務教育起源於德國。早在十六世紀，德國新教領袖馬丁路德爲了推動宗教教育，主張政府推廣教育。一六一九年，德國魏瑪邦公布學校法令，規定父母將六至十二歲的兒童送入學校接受教育。此後，自一七六三年普魯士二世提出強迫教育法令開始，政府多次制定義務教育法令，並加以推行，直到一八八八年基本實現了八年初等教育的任務（杭州大學，1988，頁40）。到了十九世紀下半葉，歐美的一些先進工業國，也陸續從初等教育起步，實施義務教育。然而，義務教育成爲世界性浪潮，不過是近半世紀的事。英國於一九四四年規定五至十五歲的兒童接受義務教育；法國於一九五九年規定六至十六歲的兒童接受義務教育；德國（西德）於一九四七年將義務教育的年限定爲六至十五歲，再在一九七〇年將年齡提前到五歲；日本在一九四七年實行義務教育，年限爲六至十六歲。在美國，各州的發展並不一致，但義務教育的年限大致從六至八歲開始到十六至十八歲爲止（鍾宇平，1982，頁81）。

義務教育之所以流行，大概是由於許多國家

和民族相繼獨立、人權思想普及發展、科學技術高速提高、知識社會的出現、以及教育被視爲人力投資和社會發展的途徑等種種原因所導致。由於世界各國相繼將教育普及，鄺肯斯 (Jenkins, 1966) 形容戰後各國的社會爲「教育的社會」。普及教育因此成了戰後各國努力的一個明顯方向。

## 香港與廣州發展義務教育的社會、經濟、文化背景

教育的發展與社會的發展息息相關。教育的發展既反映一個社會的經濟條件，又會影響其經濟發展；既傳遞社會的文化傳統，卻又進而影響社會文化的進程。根據湯瑪斯與波斯特維 (Thomas & Postlethwaite, 1983) 的研究顯示，一個社會的教育發展，往往受七個度向所影響，即（1）轉變的宏度；（2）新思想的存在；（3）足夠的動機；（4）社會組織的穩定性；（5）資源充裕；（6）有效率的組織和技術專才；（7）足夠的教育經費。

第一度向，即轉變的宏度，是指一個地方面積越小、人口越少、交通越發達、通訊系統越完善，則教育發展的宏度越大。關於這方面，香港跟廣州市的情況很相似。香港的面積約一千零七十五平方公里，而人口則爲五百八十多萬。廣州市總面積一萬六千六百多平方公里，總人口六百八十多萬；市區面積一千三百多平方公里，人口三百十七萬。兩地都是重要的交通樞紐。香港是亞洲地區（尤其是東亞與東南亞地區）的交通樞紐。市內的交通網絡、通訊設施、以及其機場、海港碼頭均達到國際水平。廣州是華南地區的交通樞紐，不僅與國內鐵路、公路、內河航道相通，而且有全國第三大的國際機場，還有具國際規模的海港碼頭。

第二度向，即新思想的存在，是指在一個社會裡，越多人具有支持現代化、改革、開放的思想，就越有利於提供教育的改革方案。關於這一點，港穗兩地都似乎有很好的條件。香港由於一直與英國、美國等地有着密切的關係，開埠以來都不斷接受新思想的衝擊。此外，由於香港每年放洋留學的人數比例甚高，這班留學生回港工作時，帶來不少新見解，爲香港的發展作出不少貢獻。廣州市自八十年代以來，一直堅持以經濟建設爲中心，堅持改革開放。在發展過程中，他們越來越深刻認識到知識、信息、科學技術的作用。此外，競爭、進取、效益、民主等觀念逐步被人們認同。現代化教育的意識正在深入人心。

第三度向，即足夠的動機，是指社會裡的大部份人都意識到現代化的需要，而教育的領導人極有決心將教育現代化。這些轉變的決心來自對現況的不滿、對不變革帶來的惡果感到憂慮、以及轉變的預期效果抱有信心。對於變革的決心，港穗兩地可以說都具有足夠的動機。香港本身缺乏天然資源，香港早就意識到除非人力資源的質素提高，否則香港的工商業的發展必受到限制。此外，對香港人來說，教育也是一個提高就業機會、經濟收益和社會地位的途徑。在廣州，人們對現況的不滿和對教育改革的決心，在文革後的撥亂反正時期是十分突出的。一九七七年五月，鄧小平就指出要「發展科學技術，不抓教育不行」，「尊重知識，尊重人才，要反對不尊重知識分子的錯誤思想」。一九八三年十二月，廣州市召開教育工作會議，提出各級各類學校都要貫徹改革精神，全面貫徹教育方針，努力提高教育質素，要逐步建立一個內部比較協調，基本上適應廣州市國民經濟發展和社會發展需要的教育體系。在教育實踐中，教育工作者看到了現行教育制度存在着種種弊端，認識到「教育不改革，就沒有出路」（李、陳、楊，1988，頁3，8）。此外，廣州市人民也越來越意識到接受教育的需要。根據《羊城晚報》一九九零年七月十五日一項報導，「不少大中學生走出書齋又走進學堂」，在暑假期間到各類文化技術學校去學習各項專門技術知識（引自吳光普，1990，頁6）。

第四度向是指社會組織的穩定性。香港除了一九六七年暴動之外，戰後數十年間的社會情況基本上十分穩定。廣州市在文革後期，即七十年代末期和整個八十年代可算是一個穩定的社會。此外，兩地的政府架構，基本上也是在一個穩定的社會基礎上運作。這些穩定的秩序，實有助兩地的教育發展。

第五度向是指充裕的資源。關於這方面，兩地都具有優厚的條件。香港在六十年代至八十年代初期，國民生產總值的增長大致維持在百分之十左右。一九四九至一九八五年間，香港生產總值增加了十七倍（Sung, 1986, 頁125）。一九八

四年，香港人均生產總值達四千四百三十二美元，與星加坡相近，在亞洲四小龍中雄據榜首；低於日本，但高於亞洲多個國家（Cheng, 1982，頁197）。一九六一年一月，聯合國經濟與社會合作組織在卡拉奇舉行會議，計劃援助中亞及東南亞各地發展免費小學教育，香港並未被列入，理由是香港當時已有相對優厚的資源（曾澍基，1984，頁19）。可見從資源方面看，香港很早已有普及義務教育的條件。廣州在八十年代的經濟發展也異常迅速。一九八零至一九八六年，廣州市國民生產總值的平均增長率爲百分之十三點三八，不僅超過同期全國的百分之九點九的增長速度，更超過國內其他大城市，甚至其他發展中國家。一九八六年，廣州市的財政收入比一九八二年增加了百分之七十六點二。社會漸趨富裕，爲教育發展提供財力和物質條件（李、陳，1988，頁25－26）。

第六度向是有效率的組織和技術專才。香港在七十年代建立了一個「技術官僚」層，成爲七十年代香港政府獲得認受性的支柱。這羣技術官僚在各種專業範圍裡爲政府出謀獻策，替政府搜集民意和分析社會問題和政策，訂立科層組織的規章條文，使各種問題得以循序辦理。這羣技術官僚的存在，使整個香港社會成爲一個更開放、合理化和民主化的社會（李明堃，1981，頁24－25）。這羣技術官僚的存在，同時也在一定程度上使教育的發展在一個較爲組織完密的基礎上進行。廣州自改革開放以來，一直致力改善其教育組織和管理制度。一九八六年九月，廣州市公布了《廣州市各類學校審批程序的暫行規定》，以加强對各級學校的宏觀管理。此外，學校管理體制改革也有新的發展。廣州市教育局直屬的八十五所中學，除了四所外，其餘已實行校長負責制。此外，在整體的管理作風方面，政府亦呼籲各單位謀求改善（《廣州年鑑》，1986，頁379）。

第七度向是指足夠的教育經費。在教育經費方面，正如上述，香港早在六十年代已被視爲有足夠的財力普及教育。一九七五年和一九八六年，教育支出佔全港公共開支分別爲百份之二十點七和十八點七，高於同期亞洲多個地區 (UNESCO, 1988, Table 4.1)。至於廣州市，「六五」期間，市財政用於教育事業方面的支出爲人民幣七億三千五百萬元，比「五五」期間增長一點五九倍。此外，用在教育事業的基建投資達人民幣一億零九百七十六萬元，比「五五」期間增長八點八一倍。五年間，市財政用於教育方面的資金以平均每年百分之二十二點五的幅度增長，大大高於該市同期平均每年社會總產值增長的百分之十二點八、國民收入增長的百分之十一點八、國民生產總值增長的百分之十三點四、和財政收入增長的百份之十三點七的速度（《廣州年鑑》，1986，頁614）。此外，在開放改革期間，廣州市廣泛興起了集資、捐資辦學活動。一九七九至一九八五年，全市共籌集辦學資金達人民幣一億一千四百二十四萬元，其中廣州市屬及所屬區縣學校共接收華僑、港澳同胞捐助辦學的款項達人民幣一千六百六十六萬元（《廣州年鑑》，1986，頁379）。

## 香港義務教育的實施

早在一九五一年，香港已實行擴建校舍的「五年計劃」；在最高峯時，每年增設學位四萬五千個。一九五三年，政府開展了「七年擴展計劃」，預期在一九六一年底能使每一個適齡學童均有學位。該計劃務求每年增設學位二萬六千個。到一九五七年，該計劃的步伐加快，每年增設學位三萬三千個。到一九六一年，「七年擴展計劃」如期完成，政府共增設學位三十一萬八千個，比預期的計劃增加了學位十萬零三千個。本來，爲每一個適齡兒童提供小學學位的指標已經一蹴即就，但由於突然湧入大量移民，加上六十年代政府轉移重點，謀求學制改革，這計劃未有如期實施。一九六八年開始，政府再度關注提供免費小學學位。一九六九年，政府及津貼小學開始減收學費。一九七一年，普及小學義務教育正式實施。七十年代開始，學額的擴張亦從小學轉移到中學（Lee，1991，頁143－5）。一九七一年，政府期望能在一九七六年爲百分之五十的十二至十四歲學童提供初中資助學位。一九七四年，政府發表有關未來十年的中學擴展白皮書，決意要在一九七九年爲所有學童提供九年免費義務教育。一九七六年，政府決定將目標提早一年完成。一九七八年，九年義務教育正式實施。

香港九年制義務教育的實現有一個特點，就是有賴於民辦私立學校的興起。一九七四至一九七五年間，民辦私立學額增加了三萬六千二百六十一個，而政府及津貼學校的學額只增加八千四

百七十五個，二者的比例爲4.3：1。一九七五至七六年間，二者學額增加分別爲二萬六千六百八十與六千六百八十五，比例爲4：1。一九七六至七七年的學額增加分別爲二萬零五百七十四與一萬零五十三，比例爲2：1（Lee，1991，頁166）。從增加的幅度來看，民辦私立學位起初佔大多數，其後逐漸減少；政府及津貼學校的學位本來只佔很少，其後逐漸增加。這與政府後期將民辦私校轉爲津貼學校有關。但從學額增加的過程來看，民辦私校的積極性和貢獻是肯定的。雖然私校買位的政策存在着不少問題，但政府通過「私校買位」政策，也及早實現了九年制義務教育。配合九年制義務教育的實施，一九七八年九月，以往的小學會考制度（即升中試）取消，改用「中一派位辦法」，使每一個小學畢業生無需參加升中試而獲分配到官立、資助或私立買位學校繼續升讀中一。全港學校根據學校所在地劃分爲二十五個「學校網」，每個「學校網」基本上都包括有各類型中學。各小學學生跟據小五年終考試及小六年級上、下學期考試成績，經過教育署利用電腦調整和排列名次先後，分派學位。學生在完成九年義務教育後，則要參加初中成績評核試，作爲選派資助學位的根據。評核試是根據中三學年的中期及年終考試成績，加上一項包括中文、英文、數學三個基本學科的公開測驗，以調整校內的成績，來評定學生的程度。一九八五年起，初中成績評核試全部取消，學校依據限額自選學生升讀中四，若校內學生不足，教育署將以統一派位辦法分派學生到該校就讀。

一九八三年九月，香港的官立及資助小學實施了「小一入學統籌辦法」，藉此取消小一入學考試，由教育署統一分配學位，希望能消除進入小學帶來的考試壓力，家長提前一年塡報「小一入學申請表」。塡報時家長可以選擇官立學位或各小學的「自行分配學位」，並將表格直接送交所選學校，選擇的小學不限於學生居住地區內。家長如不打算自選學校，可將表格送到教育署的小一派位中心，由教育署統一派位。每一間學校有權自行取錄相當於小一學位的百份之六十五的小一新生，其餘的百份之三十五的學位則由教育署統一分配。如果通過「自行分配學位」辦法而未能獲得學位者，其申請將自動由教育署統一分配（香港教育資料中心，1988，頁55－62）。

課程方面，隨着一九七八年九年義務教育的發展，課程發展委員會加入由各教育團體推薦、教育司委托的半民選成員，希望在制訂各科課程的同時，也發揮整體協調的功能。一九八四年左右，各中、小學科目的提綱基本完成。一九八五年開始，百分之八十以上的初中畢業生升上高中，高中課程多元化的需要越來越明顯。經過兩年的討論，課程委員會陸續推出了多個傳統學術課程外的多種課程的綱要，如電腦科、工程科學科、社會科學、體育及其他高中程度的實用科學，目的是擴闊高中課程，讓學生可按本身的能力作不同的選擇。同時，課程發展委員會亦因應非學科教學的需要，制訂了《德育指引》、《課外活動指引》、《性教育指引》等，幫助學校推行各方面的工作，又設立了「以學校爲本課程設計」計劃，鼓勵教師以學校的實際情況爲依據，設計適合學校或所在社區的課程（香港教育資料中心，1988，頁54－55）。

## 廣州市義務教育的實施

一九八四年，廣州已經普及了小學教育，爲全面普及九年制義務教育奠下了基礎。一九八六年三月，廣州市人大在八屆會議通過了《廣州市九年義務教育的實施方案》，提出要在一九八八年基本實現九年制義務教育。一九八七年，廣州市人大常委會將這一目標調整，希望到一九九零年，全市小學畢業生升學率達到百分之九十五。首先實現適齡兒童都升上中一年級，然後逐步擴展到中二、中三年級，最後到一九九三年完全實現九年制義務教育。爲了確保目標實現，廣州市採取了一連串措施。

關於入學率和學生流失率，當局致力維持小學入學率在百分之九十八點五以上，初中入學率在百分之九十五以上，小學學生流失率在百分之一以下，初中和小學的流失率在百分之二以下。關於學生的質素，務求百分之二十至三十的學生達到「三好」（即身體、品德、學習優良）的條件。教師學歷方面，務求到一九九三年小學教師中百分之八十五以上獲中等師範學校畢業以上或專業合格證書，初中教師中百分之八十五以上獲高等專科以上學歷或專業證書。學校設備方面，除了標準的教學儀器、圖書館、實驗室之外，農村小學要有運動場，農村初中要有學生宿舍，城鎮小學要有音樂室、衛生保健室和美術室。

實施的過程主要分兩大階段。一九八六年七月一日至一九九零年九月是第一階段，實現全市小學畢業生有百分之九十五升上初中。一九九零年九月至一九九三年九月是第二階段，務求百分之九十八學生完成九年義務教育，百分之八十五以上取得初中畢業證書。整個過程的工作重點包括：（1）立法和管理；（2）培養師資；（3）籌措經費；（4）興建校舍；（5）教育改革。

立法和管理方面，廣州市制定了《廣州市九年制義務教育實施方案》、《廣州市農村初中辦學的基本要求》、《廣州市新四區、四縣九年制義務教育質量規劃》等法規和指導性文件，並在城鄉深入廣泛宣傳《義務教育法》。廣州市政府每年召開兩次專門會議，總結、研究、並部署各階段義務教育實施工作，廣州市人大常委會每年聽取實施情況匯報，並組織人民代表視察學校。教育行政部門則對學校進行經常性的督導和幫助。廣州市實行「三級辦學，分級管理」的體制。在農村，完全中學由縣政府辦學和管理，初級中學由鎮政府辦學和管理，小學由農村辦學和管理，務求各級政府責任明確。

培養師資方面，市政府預測需要增加六千多名中學教師，在一九八五年九月新辦一所廣州師範專科學校。廣州市通過師專和其他高等學校，已招收五千六百多名學生，其中畢業後到農村地區任教的達三千八百九十三人，基本上滿足第一階段的要求。此外，市教育行政部門還開辦農村初中校長培訓班，農村初中三百二十名校長已接受培訓。

籌措經費方面，市各級政府逐年增加對教育事業的投入，各新區、縣每年對教育的投入約佔財政收入的百分之三十以上。例如，增城縣百分之四十以上，從化縣則高達百分之五十以上。市政府開徵「教育費附加」，用於普及九年制義務教育。一九八五年，對市區的企業單位及個體工商戶徵收銷售和經營收入的百分之三；一九八六年七月則按單位和各人實際繳納的產品稅、增值稅和營業稅的百分之一徵收。一九八五年九月至一九九零年十一月間，單市一級財政共徵得教育費附加人民幣一億七千萬元，其中一億三千九百萬元用於實施義務教育。此外，發動社會各方面籌得資金共人民幣一億四千三百八十五萬元，亦發動港澳同胞捐資興學。

興建校舍方面，一九八五年預測到一九九零年，全市因要增加學生八萬多人而需要新建校舍五十一萬七千平方公尺。一九八六年至一九九零年，新區、縣新建初中學校六十六所，擴建初中學校一百三十四所，建築面積達六十一萬平方公尺。用於校舍建設和教學設施的費用爲人民幣二億五千七百萬元，佔實施普及九年制義務教育總投入資金的百分之七十三點四。

教育改革方面，爲配合實施義務教育，廣州政府亦進行種種教育體制、結構、以及教育思想內容和方法的改革。首先，實行「三級辦學、分級管理」，務要貫徹「人民教育人民辦，辦好教育爲人民」的指導思想。其次，全面貫徹「德、智、體、羣、美全面發展」的方針，着力改變「應考」教育。在城區試驗初中招生新辦法，取消統一升學考試，實行按居住地區和學校推薦相結合的辦法安排學生入讀初中一年級。此外，初中已實行會考制度。第三，試辦有特色的初中學校，在農村辦了一批初中階段的職業技術學校或培訓班，培養農村實用職業技術人材。在城市，則試辦音樂藝術特色的中學和注重實用技術培訓的初中等，讓學業有困難但又具某方面潛能的學生能順利接受九年義務教育，全面提高國民質素。第四，進行教材改革。從一九九零年開始，廣州市部分中小學試驗的三套「六三」學制教材是：（1）人民教育出版社編寫的初中一年級政治、語文、數學、英語和小學一年級的語文、數學、自然、音樂等教材。（2）廣東省沿海地區版九年義務教育教材編委會編寫的初中一年級的政治、語文、數學、自然、音樂等教材。（3）東北師大、北京師大、北京師院、西南師大、廣西師大、華東師大出版社中小學教材出版協作委員會編寫的初中一年級政治、語文、數學、英語教材和小學一年級的語文、數學教材（劉念祖，1991）。

## 港穗實施義務教育的成果與經驗

香港自從五十年代計劃增設學位和校舍建設，各項計劃都達到預期的目標。此外，踏入七十年代，學額增長的幅度都比原定計劃加快。一九七四年白皮書的決定比一九七三年綠皮書建議增幅更大，原定一九七九年實施的九年制義務教育，結果提早在一九七八年實行。此外，一九七七年綠皮書建議到一九八六年有百分之六十三的

十五歲學童獲得高中資助學位，另外有百分之二十的學童在工業學院獲得技工課程的資助學位。這項指標，亦提早在一九八五年完成。論者因此認爲「香港的一百四十多萬學生中，有八十五萬人（一九八五年統計）獲得免費教育，而且，如想繼續升學，其中百分之七十可獲高中資助學位，其餘的可讀私立高中或特殊學校，從發展之快和學生人數之多來考慮，不能不說是一項成績」（《香港普及教育》，1991）。廣州市實施九年制義務教育，經過五年的艱苦工作，已取得很大的成績，在全國大城市中屬於前列。五年來累計淨增加的初中生達八萬一千一百四十三人，比原定目標多六百八十六人。全市小學生初中的入學率達到百分之九十六，達到了原定目標。教育經費的籌措和使用達三億五千萬元，超過了原定目標四千萬元。校舍的建設也超過了原定目標。五年來新建校舍佔現有校舍總面積的一半，也相當於一九四九至一九八五年所建校舍的一倍半。初中教師學歷達標準的比率亦提升到百分之七十五。廣州市實施九年制義務教育可說已達到了初步目標。港穗兩地實施九年制義務教育的經驗，大概有如下幾個特點：

第一，義務教育的實施都是在一定的社會和文化條件下進行。港穗兩地在實施義務教育前，兩地都有可觀的經濟增長，兩地都積極促進社會的發展，兩地對教育的發展都抱有一定的期望。成功的義務教育的實施，有賴於政府和民間認同接受教育的需要。

第二，有效的規劃和行政措施對義務教育的實施有決定性作用。香港在義務教育發展的十年間，從一九六三年的《馬殊、森雅報告書》、一九六五年的《教育政策白皮書》、一九七三、一九七四年的未來十年中學發展的綠皮書和白皮書到一九七七、一九七八年的關於高中及專上教育發展的綠皮書和白皮書等，都標誌着對教育發展方向和規模不斷探討和計劃的努力。九年制義務教育的實現，可說是經年規劃和努力的成果。至於行政措施方面，由於香港的教育體制主要是由教育署統籌，在執行工作中，也容易達到預期效果。廣州方面，在開始實施義務教育之前，穗政府就對九年制義務教育工作進行研究，及時提出了適當的實施方案。在實施的過程中，又根據實際的情況，對方案不斷改善，使計劃得以實現。除了市一級政府有宏觀的規劃外，各區、縣以下的政府都根據市的總規劃，從本地的實際出發，制定本地區的規劃和實施辦法。在實施工作中，始終把九年制義務教育作爲發展的戰略的系統工程之一。市政府亦採取强硬而有力的措施，例如要求各級政府將之作爲自己的主要任務，並以之作爲考查下級成績的一項主要內容。

第三，民間力量對義務教育的實施起了重要的作用。在香港，正如前述，在學額擴張的初期，私立學校作出了極大的貢獻。政府也盡量利用私立學校的功能，例如向私立學校買位，務求較早實施義務教育。後來，政府再逐步將私立學校變爲政府津貼學校，既可提高私校的質素，又可減少政府辦學的行政負擔。廣州市的社會情況跟香港不同，沒有私立學校的出現。但是廣州市在實施義務教育的過程，非常重視深入宣傳《義務教育法》，使羣衆懂得其重要意義。另一方面，又嚴格控制中小學生的非正常流動，嚴禁工廠和企業招收童工。再者，在農村地方發動羣衆斥資辦學，亦鼓勵港澳同胞及華僑捐資辦學。

第四，義務教育的發展有賴於教育改革的配合。在香港，九年制義務教育實施不久，政府於一九八一年邀請四位由國際教育專家組成的顧問團，全面檢討香港的教育制度，四位專家在一九八二年發表報告書，指出香港過去教育發展缺乏一個長遠、有機、聯系的計劃。在一系列的建議中，提議要成立教育統籌委員會。一九八四年，教育統籌委員會的成立，成爲香港教育發展邁向新階段的里程碑。過去八年來，教統會發表了總共五份教育報告書，對本港教育的各方面問題，包括中三淘汰試、考試評核方法、教學語言、學制、學生行爲問題、教師質素之提升等等，都作出了檢討並提出改革的建議。儘管教育界對教統會的建議意見紛紜，但無可否認，它是香港有史以來，在教育的檢討和規劃發展方面做得最全面和最有連貫性的一個組織。廣州方面，在義務教育的實施過程中，市政府非常重視從各地經濟、社會發展的需要出發，改革教育體制，教育結構、辦學模式、以及教學的內容、方法，做到邊發展邊改革。邊發展邊改革的好處是一方面可以解決義務教育實施過程中遇到的種種困難，另一方面有利於提高教育的經濟和社會效益。

## 實施義務教育的困難和問題

上面分析了港穗兩地義務教育在發展和實施過程中的很多有利因素，但事實上，義務教育在兩地實施都遇到了不少困難和問題。

首先是教育質量的問題。義務教育的推行，往往將重點放在數量的發展，而質量的問題往往被忽略。港穗兩地義務教育發展的經驗似乎也說明了這一點。在香港，教師的工作量大，教課負擔重，既影響教學的質素，也影響學習的質素。目前班級與教師的比例，中學是1：1.3，小學是1：1.2。官津學校的中學教師每周上課三十至三十四節，小學教師三十至三十六節。此外，還要兼任班主任、課外活動指導工作和其他學校的行政雜務（香港教育資料中心，1988，頁116）。在私立學校，每周上課超過四十節者亦大不乏人。故此，雖然私立買位可以臨時解決學位問題，但這些「二等學位」對學生帶來的不良影響，卻一直被人詬病。就教師學歷而言，一九八零年，已受訓的中小學非學位教師，佔全部非學位教師的百分之八十二點六，至一九八四年，比例則下降到百分之七十，到一九八六年，則回升到百分之八十一點九五。學位教師方面，在一九八零年已受訓的佔全部學位教師的百分之三十九點二，一九八四年上升至百分之五十二，一九八六年再升至百分之六十二點六，但仍有百分之四十的學位教師未接受訓練，可見受訓教師的比例雖然逐漸增加，但卻相對地緩慢（1988，頁83）。課程方面，自從一九七八年實施九年制義務教育以來，有些課程超過十年也沒有改變，有些在一九八三年才改變。舊的課本，有的甚至沿用十年，並沒有因義務教育的推行而改變（1988，頁26）。

在廣州市，雖然實施義務教育五年以來學生的考試成績略有上升，但成績仍然偏低。五年來由於新辦了一批農村中學，提拔了一批新校長和學校管理人員，但他們大多缺乏經驗。五年來新增加的農村初中教師人數佔現有農村初中教師總數的百分之四十六。雖然他們已達到學歷的要求，但他們接受培訓的基礎偏低，加上實踐經驗缺乏，他們的質素仍有不少缺乏之處。

第二，廣州方面，過高的人口增長給教育事業帶來沉重的負擔。根據一九八九年統計，廣州市的人口出生率爲百分之十五點七，自然增長率爲百分之十點四，當年出生的嬰兒九萬一千四百零二人。在一些新區縣，人口出生率有些達到百分之二十三點二。市屬四個縣，當年出生的人口就達到三萬九千四百八十八人。人口過快的增長牽制了人均教育經費的增長，以及整個教育事業的發展。此外，由於人口增加的因素，一九九一至一九九三學年度，廣州市將增加初中生三萬七千人，教學班七百四十三個（按每班五十人計）；小學生增加二萬七千七百人，教學班六百九十三個（按每班四十人計）。這給廣州市實現九年制義務教育帶來了新的困難（《廣州年鑑》，1990）。

第三是教育的地區差異問題。香港的人口有百分之八十集中在市區。但是由於政府在新界興建新區的政策，新界的人口比例慢慢在增長中，由一九七一年的百分之十七點二增至一九八一年的百分之二十六點一。整個八十年代，新界的人口增長了三倍（《香港1982》，1982，頁227）。由於新界新區人口激增，導致在新區的學額嚴重短缺。以屯門爲例，初中累積短缺學額在一九八五年達八百個，到一九八八年升至七千四百個。此外，因學額短缺及學校質素問題而要往外區就讀的學生數字，一九八五年爲八百人，到一九八八年上升至七千四百人（吳明欽，1988，頁108）。此外，新區學校也經常要面對很多學生問題。根據一九八八年一項沙田區的學生調查，百分之四十四的受訪者表示其朋友曾涉及某類不良行爲，其中較普遍的包括喧嘩、逃學、打架、破壞公物等等（香港統計服務社，1988，頁40—41）。

在廣州市內，城鄉之間存在着經濟、文化方面的不平衡，差異懸殊。普及義務教育工作的重點和困難點主要在農村地區。根據一九八九年的統計，廣州市老城區的面積只佔全市面積的一點七三，而人口佔百分之三十八點六；新區的面積佔百分之十七點七，人口佔百分之二十一點九；縣的面積佔百分之八十點六，人口佔百分之三十九點五，其中從事農業的人口及其家屬，佔全市總人口的百分之四十二點六，非農業人口佔百分之五十七點四。一九八零年，農民年均收入是職工年均純收入的百分之六十點八，一九八九年爲百分之四十六點六。在教育基礎方面，一九八四年，即實施九年制義務教育前二年，老城區的小學畢業生升學率已達到百分之九十五，而新區

（處於城區與農村接壤區）爲百分之八十四左右，農村則爲百分之六十左右。其中增城縣一九八五年小學畢業生升學率僅爲百分之三十八，在廣東省九十多個縣中排列倒數第二。初中教師的學歷達到大學專科二年制以上水平者，新區和縣僅爲百分之二十九點三，而老城區市教育局屬的八十二所中學已達到百分之七十二。一九九零年，在農村地區，仍有百分之二十四點二的初中，在基本教學設施、設備方面未有達到標準（《廣州年鑒》，1987，1990《廣州新四區》，1990）。

第四是有關失學的問題。在香港，根據一項研究報告指出，義務教育執行初的三年，即一九七八至一九八一年間，共有三十七萬三千一百四十四人參加了「中學學位分配」計劃，但一九八一至一九八四年間參加「初中評核試」之中三學生共有三十二萬七千零四十三人，每年平均輟學率爲百分之十二點四。中途退學的主要原因是學習成績、學習興趣、和經濟困難或父母命令停學（香港仔明愛中心，1985，頁6－8）。根據另一項一九八八至一九八九年間的調查，青少年輟學，大多是因爲對學科沒有興趣或成績欠佳而產生挫折感所導致的（《教育資訊》，1990年11月，頁93）。上述調查的發現，揭示了在實施義務教育以後，香港經驗了很多國家都遇上的問題，即不少學生在強逼性的義務教育政策下，並不享受他們所接受的教育。

在廣州，在社會急劇發展的過程中，現代化的意識越趨普及、對教育的需求越趨強烈，但另一方面，反文化的傾向、知識貶值的現象卻也同時存在。由於社會條件和生產力發展的限制、知識在現實生活中還未能達到應有的市場價值，以致知識份子，尤其是教師的待遇低，導致在社會中也存在着輕視教育的傾向。「讀書無用論」的觀念對一部分家長、學生會有影響。在農村，一些農民們受小農意識的影響，難免將眼光放在目前的經濟需要上，不願意送子女上學，而要他們做工。因此，農村地區有時會出現較爲嚴重的學生流失現象，成爲了執行義務教育的障礙。

## 結語：對義務教育問題的再思

上面的研究分別談及港穗兩地實施九年制義務教育的社會、經濟、文化背景，九年制義務教育的實施過程及其採取的相應措施，以及在執行上遇到的困難。無疑，港穗兩地在推動義務教育方面都作出了不少努力，但是在義務教育推行的過程中，港穗兩地，以及其他很多國家和地區所遇到的困難和問題，卻又令我們要從新思索教育的方向。綜而言之，義務教育推行以來，很多國家和地區都經驗到學生的教育水平下降了，學生的行爲問題增加了（OCED，1983，頁9；賀國強，1990）。這些現象似乎意味着義務教育未見其利，先見其弊，因而爲義務教育的實施潑冷水。不過，這些究竟是否真的是義務教育的後果，卻是有爭議的。

首先，學生程度是否真的下降本身是一個很複雜的問題。一方面，學生程度下降的印象可能與社會條件的轉變有關。例如由於香港近年專上教育擴展，出國升學人數增加，以及勞力市場對學歷的要求有所提高，導致社會整體對學生水平的期望也相應提高，從而產生學生水平不足的感覺（曾榮光，1991，頁18－19）。因此，問題並不在於是否義務教育導致學生水平下降，而是現行的教育發展根本仍未追得上社會的要求。另一方面，學生程度下降的印象往往由於將以前學生的表現和今天的學生的表現作比較而產生，但這種比較是否適當，是否可行，本身存在着很多問題（程介明，1987，頁173）。此外，學生程度下降的印象，也可能是由於在義務教育推行以後，人們仍然沿用昔日精英教育的尺度來衡量今日普及教育的成果所導致。其實，二者的精神有着根本的區別。精英教育的基本精神是只爲少數的「精英」提供特別的教育服務，因此可以期望他們有超卓的成績。普及教育的精神則是爲社會的所有成員提供最基礎教育，以培養最起碼的技術和能力（《香港普及教育》，1991，頁18－19）。對於學生水平下降的批評卻又同時反映了社會上對教育期望的矛盾。一方面我們期望教育制度給予普及教育的機會，但另一方面，我們卻又期望教育制度成爲一種篩選精英的工具。前者讓更多人接受教育，卻給人「平均水平」下降的印象，後者將一部分甚至大部分人拒於校門之外，但卻給人一種維持「高水平」的感覺。

其次，關於學生行爲的問題，也可能並非純粹由義務教育導致，而是與整個教育制度缺乏適應性有關。例如，教育雖然普及了，但是整個教育制度仍然維持着舊有的精英教育的模式，仍然

以考試爲中心。普及教育在精英模式及以考試爲中心的底下推行，自然引起很多問題。最明顯的，就是這種制度產生了一大批的失敗者。學習沒有成功感自然無心向學，無心向學自然在課堂產生不合作甚至搗亂的現象。另一方面，在社會急速轉變、學生來源又在轉變的時候，課程缺乏靈活轉變、教學方法缺乏適當調節也容易導致學生出現行爲問題。課程缺乏相應轉變，學習自然缺乏應用性、適切性和重要性了。此外，在學生來源有所轉變的時候，若老師的教學法仍然「以教師爲中心」，而非「以學生爲中心」的話，教師與學生之間、講者與聽者之間儼然出現了一度鴻溝，各顧各的，各自批評對方的不是。根據一項關於學生行爲問題的研究指出，學生中間出現「幫黨」活動，在一定程度上與學校生活乏味沉悶、所學習的科目與生活無關，以及考試壓力過重有關 (Lo, 1984)。換言之，在推行義務教育過程中所遇到的種種問題，可能與教育觀念和教育制度缺乏相應的改變、課程缺乏靈活的轉變、以及教學方法缺乏適切的調整有關。

義務教育的實施其實標誌着一個新的教育時代的開始，要求對教育的期望有所轉變、對新的教育模式進行探索，也要求教育內容與教學方法靈活多變。近年來，「校本課程」、「校本教師訓練」等觀念的出現，可以是嘗試靈活轉變的範例；對「更新教育」的關注，也可以顯示了對教育模式的思想和探索。這些新的構想應該得到鼓勵，並且給予嘗試的機會，務求在義務教育的基礎上，締造一個新的教育紀元。

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# 中、港、台三地實施九年義務教育的宏觀比較

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本文嘗試將中國大陸、台灣及香港三地實施九年義務教育的經驗作比較，勾劃出三地的政府如何看待教育對促進社會及經濟發展的作用，及其對發揮基礎教育功能所下的決心及採取的措施。中、港、台三地是中國人的社會。由於客觀的條件有所不同，經濟及社會發展的模式有差異，但三地的基礎教育發展，可以互相借鑒的地方頗多，值得教育工作者多加研究。

## A Comparative Review of the Implementation of 9-Year Compulsory Education in Mainland China, Taiwan and Hong Kong

This paper attempts to review briefly the background and experience of implementing 9-year compulsory basic education in Mainland China, Taiwan and Hong Kong after the Second War. The three regions share the same Chinese identity but follow different patterns of development in contemporary history.

Taiwan has 1945 deliberately popularised 9-year compulsory education to support its industrial take-off and subsequent export-oriented economic development. This attempt was strongly supported by a high percentage of educational expenditure in the annual government budget. As a result, Taiwan was able to implement 9-year compulsory education in 1968, the secoad region in Asia after Japan capable of doing so. Taiwan has also adopted a far-sighted policy of upgrading the qualification of teachers to ensure that the quality of basic education is upheld.

Hong Kong implemented 6-year compulsory primary education in 1971 and 9-year compulsory education in 1978, the pace of which synchronised with Hong Kong's economic growth. Yet the quantitative expansion of basic education was somewhat hasty and was not very well supported by measures that would ensure quality. It was during the 1980's that the government gradually took measures to address the quality issue.

The People's Republic of China has spent tremendous efforts in eradicating illiteracy and popularising basic education. Illiteracy rate was reduced from 80% in 1949 to about 20% in 1990. But due to policy contradictions and political upheavals, it was not until 1986 that the Chinese government introduced the 9-year Compulsory Education Law. Because of the vast territorial size and imbalances of economic development between different regions in China, the nationwide implementation of 9-year compulsory education has faced and will face many difficulties.

## 前言

基礎教育的普及是建設現代化社會的必由之路。基礎教育對社會經濟發展的作用是雙重性的，既具有即時性的直接功能，又具有潛在性的間接功能。

基礎教育是政府根據實際能力，以立法手段爲學童提供某個年限的義務或强迫教育，主要目的在於給予受教育者所必需的基本知識、價值觀念、生活技能、職業技術，使他們能夠繼續學習，改善自己的生活，爲國家和社會作出貢獻(Ahmad, 1991)。

基礎教育的普及發展是艱巨的過程，不能一躍而蹴。以日本爲例，自1872年開始義務教育立法，至1947年普及九年義務教育，前後經歷了75年。據1991年聯合國教科文組織統計，全球200多個國家和地區中，已有173個宣佈實行5至11年不等的義務教育，而其中低收入國家（指人均收入每年不達400美元者）還沒有眞正普及小學的例子。

中國大陸、台灣及香港同屬於一個母體，因歷史的因由走着不同的社會及經濟發展道路，他們實施九年義務基礎教育亦有不同的經歷及特色。本文嘗試從宏觀的角度，比較中、港、台三地推行九年義務教育的背景、經驗及成就。

## 普及九年義務教育的背景

中、港、台三地都是1949年以後逐步配合社會和經濟發展，分階段普及六年小學及三年初中義務教育；由於三地的客觀條件不同，實施九年義務教育的步伐先後有別。台灣最早於1968年實施九年國民教育、香港於1978年實施九年免費强迫教育，而中國大陸則於1986年頒佈義務教法，承擔推廣九年義務教育的責任。

台灣是中國的領土，1895年被日本佔領，1945年回歸中國。1949年國民黨政府遷台灣後，積極發展教育以促進台灣的經濟發展。台灣的教育基礎起點也頗高，1950年台灣適齡小學生的入學率已達75%，能升初中的佔32%，到了1960年，小學入學率已提高至96%，升初中率達

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51%。台灣的經濟自1963年進入出口導向階段後，國民黨政府更加積極擴展各級和各類教育，優先發展職業教育，增建學校，教育經費中增長率達18.8%。這些措施擴大了青少年受教育的機會。當1968年台灣實施九年國民教育時，全台灣的學童就學率已達97%，小學升初中率爲84%，條件相當成熟。由於國民教育普及，成功地配合了台灣的經濟在七十年代開始進入層次較高的資本及技術密集階段。台灣在亞洲地區僅次於日本最早實施九年義務教育，是積極主動以人力投資配合經濟發展及轉型的典範。

香港自1840年成爲英國殖民地後，一直都依賴轉口貿易；殖民地政府採取「低限度承擔」及「精英篩選」的教育政策，公共教育的規模狹少。1941年日本侵佔香港時，全港163萬人口中僅有7%是學生，可見一斑。1946年以後香港人口急劇增長，香港的經濟支柱亦逐步從轉口貿易過渡到以勞動密集型爲主的出口製造業。1950至1966年，香港小學適齡兒童人數由15萬餘人增至66萬餘人，平均每年需要增加小學學位4.5萬個。因此，香港政府的教育發展重點放在擴展小學教育，全面推行小學建校計劃，擴展小學教師培訓及實行上下午班授課。這一項教育發展策略看來是成功的。1965年香港適齡小學生的入學率達100%，全港人口小學程度以上達58%，基本上滿足了六十年代香港對大量廉價勞工的需求。1966至1971年間香港的經濟起飛，每年的生產總值每年增長率達8.4%，與此同時，人口增長率亦持續下降趨於穩定。上述有利條件，促進港府在1971年正式實施小學義務教育。1974年港府發表〈香港未來十年內的中學教育白皮書〉，目標之一是在1979年起實施九年義務教育。到了1978年，港府提前實行九年義務教育，其中原因之一是共同市場指責香港僱用16歲以下的童工。香港的經驗，說明了港府在1950年後採取了資力投資的教育政策，逐步普及基礎教育來配合經濟發展。

中華人民共和國在1949年成立時，中國大陸80%的人口是文盲，適齡小學兒童的入學率祇有20%。1949-56年期間中國政府重點工作是在全國開展掃盲識字運動及鼓勵發展民辦（即地方集資籌辦）小學，成績斐然，7年間共掃盲二千多萬人，並將小學適齡兒童入學率提升至63%，小學升初中率達44%；到了1965年，小學適齡兒童入學率已達84%，升初中率達82%，普及基礎教育的成績高於同期發展中國家的水平。不過，中國大陸基礎教育的發展受「教育大躍進」的影響，數量和質量並不相稱。1966年爆發的文化大革命更陷整個教育制度於混亂癱瘓中；1972年後教育事業有所恢復，但隨之而來的是以犧牲質量爲沉重代價急於實現「虛腫」的普及。1976年，中國大陸小學適齡兒童入學率高達97%，升初中率一度高達90%，但實際上的鞏固率及完成率祇有60%及30%。1978年後，中國政府恢復以務實態度發展基礎教育，通過充實加強小學，整頓提高初中，扎實推行掃盲教育來提高國民教育水平。1986年，小學適齡兒童入學率爲96.4%，升初中率爲69%。中國政府更認識到教育對提高整個民族素質的重要性，乃於1986年頒佈〈義務教育法〉，將全國分爲沿海、中部及邊遠地區，有步驟地分批實施九年義務教育。由於中國幅員廣闊，教育經費不足，推行九年義務教育的工作甚爲艱巨。據估計，到公元2000年，全國六成的農村兒童仍未必能完成九年基礎教育（郝克明，1991）。

平實而言，中國大陸過去四十多年來的基礎教育發展不斷受到反覆無常的政治運動衝擊，而且片面強調政治灌輸，到80年代中期才轉向到提高全民族素質和爲經濟及社會建校服務的務實軌道來，走了一段彎路；儘管如此，中國的基礎教育發展成就亦不遜於中下等收入水平的發展中國家，世界銀行讚揚，但與經濟發達國家比較仍屬薄弱。中國大陸目前人力資源的教育水平，只達日本1905年的水平；與台灣、南韓、香港及星加坡「四小龍」相比則接近他們60年代中期的水平(Perkins, 1988)。面對着一億八千萬的文盲人口及二億多的適齡就學兒童，中國大陸普及九年義務教育的工作實在是任重而道遠。

## 普及基礎教育的配套發展

普及基礎教育，除了學位的提供外，還需要同步相稱的配合工作，包括經費投入、師資培訓、課程改革等，才能促使教育水準不斷提高。否則，虛浮的發展祇會導致教育質素下降及各種後遺症。

回顧中、港、台三地普及基礎教育的發展，以台灣的同步配套工作做得最積極穩妥。首先，

台灣一向重視教育投資，在1968年以前教育經費年增長率爲18.8%，1968年後升至21.2%。台灣的教育及研究經費自七十年代以來穩佔政府財政支出的第二位，這使教育資源得到有利的保障；此外，台灣還以國外貸款，發行教育公債及鼓勵私人辦學等辦法擴大教育資源，在改善國民中小學的物質環境方面，台灣自1968年起每年都運用教育專款來充實學校的各項設備。台灣最成功的經驗是逐步將中等師範學校改制成爲師範專科學校，使小學教師逐步達到大專水平，而初中教師全部由師範大學和師範學院的本科畢業生擔任；到了80年代中期，台灣又將師專升格爲師範學院，使新補充的小學教師逐步達到大學本科水平。台灣更重視教師在職進修及保障教師的生活待遇，使教師專業素質不斷提高。在課程方面，台灣重視德育、基礎學科、選修學科及課外活動，並建立了國小國中一貫的輔導體系，亦積極開展教育評鑑工作。台灣的基礎教育可以說是質與量並重，因此學校有較高和平均的水準。

香港在配合基礎教育發展方面的工作可算是「中規中矩」，但在很多方面表現「得過且過」，欠缺更上一層樓的魄力。在教育資源方面，港府在七十年代逐步實施九年免費教育及擴充專上教育後才將教育經費調高至佔政府每年總開支16.4%的平均水平（最高是1975年的19.6%）。香港教育經費佔本地生產總値比重，平均爲3%，最高一年爲3.5%（1979年），在國際上祇算是中下水平，未及發展中國家平均比例（4.1%），更遠低於發展國家（7%）。與香港競爭激烈的其他三小龍近年撥出4.5-5%的生產總値用於智力投資方面，香港相對地是落伍了。香港教育資源的內部分配也是輕視基礎教育。以1989年爲例，中小學學生佔全港學生人數的75.5%，但所獲的財政經費分配祇佔總數的55%。五十年代屬於應急措施的小學上下午班制度迄今仍然沿用，對小學教育的質素不無影響。港府在五十年代開始大力發展「師範學院」（現稱教育學院）培訓文憑教師，保障了受訓小學及初中教師的供求，但在提高教師學歷水平方面則顯得保守，直到1992年6月教育統籌委員會發表的第五號報告書才建議成立專上教育學院，培訓學位教師。

香港在1978年宣佈實施九年義務教育時準備並不充份，教育署需要用浮動班、兩校共用校舍及向私校買位等應變措施來滿足學位的增加。對課程改革及加强學生輔導等配合工作未夠主動，造成教育質素的急劇下降。幸而八十年代港府推出一系列的改善措施，例如增加英語文教師教席、加强輔導工作、鼓勵課外活動，推廣活動教學等來提高中小學的教育質素。

香港的基礎教育建基於一套核心課程上，但較偏重於智育而相對地忽視德育，隨着香港經濟多元化及向高科技發展，港府在七十年代中期積極在初中階段推行職業技術教育及課程綜合化，使課程內的學術科目及實用科目有較均衡的發展，各項課程亦不斷修改更新以追上時代發展。總的來說，香港實施九年義務教育的工作是成功的，但需要多方面的改進以提高質素，特別是要解決大部份學生未能以英語學習所帶來的困擾，亦要加强輔導工作，幫助學生在身心發展方面健康成長。

中國大陸的基礎教育已形成龐大的規模，但發展不平衡、水準參差、教學質量不高，未來發展更受制於教育投入的嚴重不足和教師水平的低下（周貝隆，1990）。中國政府對教育的投資被公認是偏低的，五六十年全國教育經費從不超過國民生產總値的2%及政府財政支出的10%；1978年後中國政府較重視教育發展，但教育投資的比例也祇是增加至國民生產總値的3.5%及政府開支的17%左右。教育經費長期不足，使學校普遍殘破落後、圖書及教學設備缺乏，直接影響教育質素。中國政府雖然近年來鼓勵多渠道集資辦教育，但經費落後及偏遠的地區仍極待中央及地方政府的投資才有希望辦好基礎教育。另一方面，1949年後的師範教育一直跟不上中小學事業的發展，全國中小學教師缺額達300萬（周貝隆，1990）。輕視知識份子的風氣並未有全面消除，教師的工資仍居各行業之末，加上教師的社會地位低微，造成日益嚴重的師資問題。據估計，全國不合格的小學教師中佔37%，初中教師佔73%，教師流失率高達24%，正嚴重地威脅着基礎教育的發展與提高（胡瑞文等，1989）。中國的基礎教育課程重視德育、語文、數學及體育，對學生的紀律及基礎知識有嚴格的要求，但課程設置比較單一，在課程多元化、綜合化方面的發展較爲緩慢，教學內容偏重知識傳授，教學方法亦比較呆板，對培養學生獨立生活和思考的能力有所不足。中國政府要在下世紀初葉在全國

基本上實現九年義務教育，以教育振興中華，看來要在各方面多加努力配合才可。

## 結語

從中國大陸、台灣及香港三地實施九年義務教育的經歷可以看到，一個政府如何看待教育對促進社會及經濟發展的作用，及其對發揮基礎教育功能所下的決心，直接影響着基礎教育的成敗及內涵。台灣政府由於生存的需要，能以較大的決心來實施九年義務國民教育，取得的成就在亞洲地區來說僅次於日本，而且在推廣的過程中有較佳的配套發展措施，台灣的好經驗是值得推廣學習的。香港政府在經濟發展的同時逐步實施九年義務教育，成績固然可以肯定，但對改善基礎教育的素質總是欠缺高瞻遠矚的眼光及果斷的決策措施，給人看一步走一步的感覺，這在提高教師資歷、改善教學環境、解決教學語言等幾方面尤爲突出。中國大陸的教育發展受政治運動的衝擊，失誤甚多，到八十年代中期才下定決心以實施九年義務基礎教育才提高全民族的素質及促進社會、經濟發展，算是後知後覺，期望中國政府的領導人能堅守「教育爲立國元本」的原則，切實保証教育經費的調配，提高知識份子的社會與經濟地位，認眞解決目前尚存的二億多文盲人口的教育問題。

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# Centralization versus Decentralization in Curriculum Development: Contrasting Patterns in Hong Kong and Macau

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The debate about the relative merits of centralization has a long history. Many industrialized countries are moving to a more decentralized model of administration, though some are becoming more centralized. Some countries have witnessed repeated swings of the pendulum.

Hong Kong and Macau are similar in many respects. They are geographically close, and share a common cultural heritage. They both rely heavily on foreign trade, and in recent years have achieved strong economic growth. They are both colonies of European powers, and are both scheduled for reintegration with the People's Republic of China at the end of this century. However, while the education system of Hong Kong is in most respects highly centralized, that in Macau is highly decentralized. Focusing mainly on patterns of curriculum development for secondary schools, this paper identifies the reasons for the contrasts, and comments on the implications.

**中央與地區化的課程發展：香港與澳門之差異**

有關課程發展中央化政策孰優孰劣的爭議，已有一段很長的歷史。儘管有些國家現正踏上中央化的路途，但爲數不少的工業國家正在轉向地區性的課程發展模式。另外一些國家則可見到一些搖擺不定、反反覆覆的措施。香港和澳門有很多類似的地方：兩地比鄰，文化相近，近年來經濟同樣依賴海外貿易，發展非常蓬勃。兩者都是在本世紀末回歸中國的歐洲國家殖民地。但兩地的課程發展政策則有很大的區別：香港採用的是高度中央化的政策，而澳門則採用高度地區化的政策。本文集中討論兩地中學課程發展的模式，探討兩地政策相異的原因，並評論其所帶來的影響。

The debate about the relative merits of centralization and decentralization has a long history. The topic is complex, and different types of administrative arrangement are suited to different types of education system in different societies at different times. Nevertheless, there is much to be learned from comparative analysis. One question concerns the reasons for contemporary variations across similar societies. A second question concerns the implications for school systems of different administrative systems.

Hong Kong and Macau have much in common. They are geographically close, and share a common cultural heritage. They both rely heavily on foreign trade, and in recent years have achieved strong economic growth. They are both colonies of European powers, and are both scheduled for reintegration with the People's Republic of China (PRC) at the end of this century. However, while the education system of Hong Kong is in most respects highly centralized, that in Macau is highly decentralized.

This paper begins with a broad review of the literature on centralization and decentralization in education. It then outlines aspects of the education systems of Hong Kong and Macau. The next two sections present details on current syllabuses, textbooks and examination systems, and on probable trends during the present decade. In order to make analysis manageable, the focus is mainly limited to secondary schools. The final section returns to the broader literature, and notes ways in which analysis of Hong Kong and Macau contributes to wider conceptual frameworks.

## Centralization versus Decentralization

The literature on centralization and decentralization in educational administration has many facets. Some are concerned with the locus of control between different tiers of government (e.g. UNESCO 1982, Saqeb 1985, Ornelas 1988, Bray 1991), while others relate to the balance of power at the school level (e.g. Knight 1985, Chapman 1987, Brown 1990, Klein 1990). For this paper, the latter strand of literature is more important since Hong Kong and Macau are too small in area to need provincial or regional governments.

Much of the western literature on curriculum in the 1970s and 1980s stressed the advantages of decentralization more than centralization (e.g. Eggleston 1980, Skilbeck 1984, Stenhouse 1986). Many countries witnessed a resurgence of interest in school-based curriculum development as a reaction to disappointments in the quest for 'one best solution' in nation-wide curriculum projects, and in recognition of the need for local commitment in successful innovation (Lewy 1991). The school-based approach encourages teachers to develop their own goals, teaching strategies and materials. Australia has been among countries in which this approach has been strongly advocated.

Chapman (1987) records that decentralization has aimed to free schools from the external control of the examination system, and that it has placed great emphasis on community participation and innovation at the school level. Chapman recognises that this greatly increased the workload of teachers, but suggests (p.68) that:

> Devolution with its associated redistribution of power has clearly had a most positive impact upon the morale of the younger and more politically active staff. These staff report that they are increasingly interested in the school and more committed to its success; more active and positive in their attitudes to the broadened range of professional experiences now available; more confident in their ability to exercise influence in the school, and more able to communicate with regional personnel, parents and members of the wider school community.

However, enthusiasm for decentralization has not been universal in western countries. One analyst notes that while aspects of the French system have been decentralized, politicians have engineered centralization in parts of the English system (Broadfoot 1985). Another authority has commented that "while great amounts of time, energy and resources, and not a little hope and optimism, have been invested in SCI School Centred Innovation, its success has by no means been demonstrated" (Hargreaves 1982: 263); and a third commentator has concluded that "the idea of decentralization has proven to be fundamentally ambivalent and to present the state with one of its more profound and intractable dilemmas" (Weiler 1989: 41). Skilbeck's (1990) review of curricula in 17 OECD countries showed the continued power of centralist ideologies in many contexts.

For the purpose of analysing Hong Kong and Macau, it must be recognised that the cultural and political framework in Asia is very different from that in the west. Centralization may be deemed more necessary for political reasons, and Asian countries may not be able to rely on well-educated, stable and motivated teaching forces. Centralized systems may also be justified on the grounds of efficiency and coherence.

To exemplify this point one may note the education system in Indonesia, which is highly centralized (Thomas 1991). Official guidelines have specified not only instructional objectives but also single methods, materials and evaluation techniques for every lesson. This framework partly arises from a distrust of the competence of teachers to develop appropriate materials by themselves. It is also justified by arguments about national coherence and low cost. Similar rationales have been advanced in China, South Korea and Malaysia (Leung 1991, Shin and Hoh 1991, Sharifah and Lewin 1991).

However, these countries are very different from the two territories on which this paper focuses. They are sovereign states, have large areas, andhave extensive cultural diversity which the central authorities fear could threaten national unity. By contrast Hong Kong and Macau are both colonies, are compact in area, and are linguistically quite homogeneous. One might therefore expect Hong Kong and Macau to be similar to each other but different from the other parts of East Asia. Indeed they do show differences from the other East Asian states; but it is perhaps a surprise that they are very different from each other.

## Educational Provision in Hong Kong and Macau

### *Hong Kong*

Education in Hong Kong is compulsory up to secondary Form 3. Most students attend secondary grammar schools, though some attend secondary technical and prevocational schools. The education system is complex, but at least there is something which can be described as the Hong Kong system. As will be noted below, the same cannot be said of Macau.

Table 1 shows figures on the ownership of primary and secondary schools. Fewer than 10 per cent of institutions are operated by the government, and in this respect the system may appear to be decentralized. However, aided schools, which form the largest group at both levels, are heavily influenced by the government. The Codes of Aid set out requirements on such matters as accounts, admission of pupils, and appointment and dismissal of staff. Accompanying Education Regulations set out detailed requirements on such matters as furnishings, safety precautions, toilets, the size of print in textbooks, class size, and school holidays.

Table 1: Number of Institutions by Level and Ownership, Hong Kong, 1990/91

| | Government | | Aided | | Private | | Total | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number | % | Number | % | Number | % | Number | % |
| Primary | 50 | 7.3 | 540 | 79.2 | 91 | 13.4 | 681 | 100.0 |
| Secondary | 41 | 8.4 | 317 | 64.8 | 131 | 26.7 | 489 | 100.0 |

*Source:* Hong Kong (1991: 3)

Private schools have greater freedom than aided schools. They are required to register with the government but have fewer constraints on teachers and general organisation. The private sector includes a number of international schools established to serve expatriate children of various nationalities. These schools are oriented to the examinations and syllabuses of such countries as the United Kingdom, the USA, Japan, France and Singapore,and are outside the Hong Kong education system. However, the majority of private schools serve local children and are oriented to local examinations. They are more easily considered part of the Hong Kong education system.

### *Macau*

In contrast to Hong Kong, Macau does not have a unified, distinctive education system. Instead it has an uncoordinated collection of institutions based on models in Portugal, the PRC, Taiwan and Hong Kong (Alves Pinto 1987: 20-21). The number of years in the primary, junior secondary and senior secondary cycles varies according to the model. The Portuguese model follows a 4 + 2 + 3 + 2 + 1 pattern, the model imported from the PRC is 6 + 5, and the Taiwan one is 6 + 3 + 3. The principal model borrowed from Hong Kong has a 6 + 5 + 1 structure.

However, even this categorization is to some extent a simplification. Table 2 shows a wide collection of combinations. The existence of these different systems reflects the haphazard way in which education in Macau has developed.

Table 2: Number of Schools, by Type and Level, Macau 1989/90

| | Language of Curriculum | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Level/Combination | Portuguese | Chinese | Chinese & Portuguese | English | Others | Total |
| Pre-School | 1 | 8 | | 1 | | 10 |
| Pre-School & Basic | 1 | 34 | 4 | 2 | | 41 |
| Pre-School, Basic & Secondary | 1 | 12 | | 1 | | 14 |
| Basic | 2 | 2 | | | | 4 |
| Basic & Secondary | 1 | 4 | 1 | 4 | | 10 |
| Basic & Secondary-Technical-Professional | | 1 | | 1 | | 2 |
| Secondary | 1 | 5 | | 1 | | 7 |
| Secondary & Teacher Training | | 1 | | | | 1 |
| Secondary & Higher | | | | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Teacher Training | | 1 | | | | 1 |
| Nursing School | | 1 | 1 | | | 2 |
| Higher | | | | 3 | | 3 |
| TOTAL | 7 | 69 | 6 | 14 | 1 | 97 |

*Notes:* a) The sizes of these institutions vary widely. A table showing enrolments would indicate rather different proportions in each system.
b) The column 'others' refers to the use of different languages at the University of Macau.

*Source:* Macau (1991a: 72).

The proportion of government schools is not dissimilar to that in Hong Kong forming in the late 1980s about 12 per cent of the total (Table 3). However, Macau has no aided schools. The vast majority of schools are private institutions run by religious bodies, social service organisations, commercial enterprises and individuals. Private schools recruit their own teachers, determine conditions of service, and decide on the size of classes. They are subject to very few government regulations. The system may thus be considered highly decentralized.

Macau's principal post-secondary institution is the University of Macau. In contrast to Hong Kong's main post-secondary institutions which commenced as government bodies, the university was founded in 1981 as a private, commercial enterprise. In 1988 the main part of the university was purchased by the government.

## Secondary School Curricula in the Two Territories

### *Hong Kong*

The government's Education Department (ED) is advised by a Curriculum Development Council (CDC), of which the 36 non-official members are appointed by the Director of Education. A hierarchy of committees reports to the CDC. Coordinating committees monitor and make recommendations on the overall

Table 3: Schools and Pupils in Macau, 1991/92

| | Pre-Primary | | Primary | | Secondary | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Schools | Pupils | Schools | Pupils | Schools | Pupils |
| Official | | | | | | |
| Chinese | 7 | 1,126 | 6 | 1,458 | 1 | 2,986 |
| Portuguese | 1 | 225 | 2 | 646 | 1 | 2,189 |
| Private | | | | | | |
| Chinese | 56 | 19,562 | 57 | 32,342 | 24 | 65,901 |
| Portuguese | 2 | 198 | 4 | 564 | 2 | 1,108 |
| English | 3 | 364 | 6 | 3,530 | 7 | 7,171 |
| TOTAL | 69 | 21,475 | 75 | 38,540 | 35 | 79,355 |

*Note:* The total number of institutions differs from that shown in Table 2. This is partly because the figures refer to a different year, but also because multi-level schools are here counted as if their component parts were separate institutions.

*Source:* Direcção dos Serviços de Educação, Macau.

curricula for kindergarten, primary, secondary, sixth form, technical and special education. Subject committees develop syllabuses, and recommend teaching methods, time allocations and assessment procedures (McClelland 1991: 112).

Schools do have some choice in their textbooks, but the books must be on a list issued by the Textbook Coordinating Committee. Authors and publishers are free to put on sale whatever they wish within the normal restrictions of publishing. However, they are aware, as McClelland (1991: 113) puts it, that "failure of a title to appear on the recommended list is the kiss of death for profitability". Morris (1992: 132) documents instances in which the CDC textbooks committee has proposed recommendations on draft manuscripts. The publishers and authors know that if the recommendations are not taken seriously, the books are most unlikely to join the approved list.

Specific requirement to use 'acceptable' material is also set out in the official Education Regulations. Section 92 of the Regulations (Hong Kong 1986: 23-4) states that:

> (1) No instruction may be given by any school except in accordance with a syllabus approved by the Director ...
>
> (6) No person shall use any document for instruction in a class in any school unless particulars of the title, author and publisher of the document and such other particulars of the document as the Director may require have been furnished to the Director not less than 14 days previously.

A 'document' is specified (Hong Kong 1985: 6) to include:

> any account, counterfoil, text-book, exercise book, pamphlet, publication, newspaper, poster, drawing, sketch, film, filmstrip, slide, gramophone record, and other printed, written or recorded matter, whether relating to school management, teaching or recreation or to any other activity of or in connexion with a school.

This set of weapons clearly provides a framework for highly centralized control. It might therefore seem surprising that the CDC, describing its own role in the process of curriculum development (quoted in McClelland 1991: 114), has stated that:

> Schools in HK have almost unlimited freedom in the choice of subjects comprising their curricula, of syllabuses for the individual subjects and of textbooks and resource materials to support the syllabuses. Provided a syllabus is educationally sound, balanced in its content and approach and suited to the needs of the pupils with whom it will be used, approval is normally given.

However, a subsequent part of the document admitted that "a system of 'guided participation' has developed ... with the ED acting as the catalyst for change". McClelland observes that some schools may have been aware of their freedom and have chosen not to use it, but that generally schools have been more impressed by the wording of the Regulations than by the assurance that the government's powers would be used positively. An additional factor is what one teacher described as "our own submissive mentality that deifies whatever comes from above, a Chinese cultural trait" (Tsui 1988: 30).

Uniformity is also promoted by the examination system. The most important public examinations are set by the Hong Kong Examinations Authority (HKEA). HKEA syllabuses are a powerful determinant of what is actually taught in schools, and parallel the CDC syllabuses.

From the perspective of decentralization, although the HKEA is a statutory body it is not under the direct control of the government's Education

Department. However, the HKEA is the only local examinations authority (in contrast to the United Kingdom, for example, which has several), and the members of its various committees work closely with their counterparts on the CDC committees. To some extent membership of the committees overlaps (Cheng 1991: 285).

The influence of examinations is heightened by the culture of Hong Kong society. McClelland (1991: 119) points out that parents value book-learning and the conventional examination success to which it is directed to the virtual exclusion of all else. Principals and teachers are then drawn to similar emphasis, whether or not this fits their professional judgements. Schools know that their reputations, and hence their capacity to recruit high-ability pupils, are more intimately associated with examination results than with other measures such as success in helping less academically-oriented pupils to achieve their potential. In McClelland's words:

> If a school were not to prepare its lower achieving pupils for public examinations in subjects needed for entry to higher stages, this would be interpreted as condemnation without a trial.

This situation adds up to a highly-centralized mechanism for curriculum development, to which the schools acquiesce partly because they are accustomed to such acquiescence, partly because they do not perceive a viable alternative, and partly because that is what they interpret the market to want. However, before concluding this section it is necessary to note one important decision which is left to the school level: the medium of instruction.

The government would like more schools to teach in Chinese, which is clearly the language in which most pupils are more confident. Yet schools know that parents favour English-medium education because they think it will improve the students' prospects for further study and for employment. The result is that many schools pretend to be English-medium but actually teach extensively either in full Chinese or in 'mixed-code' (Johnson 1983, Lord and Cheng 1987). The government has over the years considered forcing schools to use specific languages, but because of its political implications has not had the courage to do so (Kwo 1987, Education Commission 1990, Sweeting 1991). The result is an anomaly in what is otherwise a highly-centralized system. Few governments elsewhere leave such an important decision entirely to the school level.

### *Macau*

The framework for curriculum development in Macau displays much less uniformity than that in Hong Kong. This is more for negative than for positive reasons. Until very recently the government has taken little interest in education, and has left all but the official schools to go their own way. This has been decentralization by default.

The result of government neglect has been great diversity. The official Portuguese schools are really European institutions operating in Asia. Their students use Portuguese textbooks, and learn about Portuguese history, geography and botany. A similar arrangement is found in the two private schools which operate a parallel curriculum (Bray and Hui 1991: 187-8).

The Luso-Chinese school is also run by the government but operates primarily in Chinese. The school has 36 periods a week, of which Portuguese takes six and English takes five. Other classes are taught in Chinese. The students mainly use Hong Kong textbooks, and the content of teaching in suchsubjects as history or geography parallels that in Hong Kong.

The majority of private schools teach either in English or in Chinese, and many do not even teach Portuguese as a subject. This reflects the impact of market forces, for apart from official business in Macau the Portuguese language is of little use in the region. For commercial and daily activities, Chinese and English are much more valuable. Parents recognise this and, as in Hong Kong, the schools follow the demands of the market.

Curricula in private schools are partly determined by the background of the sponsors of individual institutions. Staff of different nationalities in the church schools bring with them the educational traditions of their home countries. Many schools following the Taiwanese model import the curricula and instructional practices of that system; and similar comments apply to the left-wing schools linked to the PRC.

Another unusual feature of Macau has been its complete lack of territory-wide examinations. This again has reflected the *laissez faire* attitude of successive governments and the fragmented nature of the education system. Students in Portuguese-language schools have followed Portugal's assessment system, while students in other schools have either sat foreign examinations or sat no external examinations at all. This again may be considered a high degree of decentralization, albeit again by default.

Two factors, partly linked, permitted Macau to exist without a territory-wide examination system: the lack of pressure from tertiary education and the small size of the territory. The former was partly because the territory was considered too small to merit a university of its own, and although some Macau students went to study abroad their numbers were insufficient to press the government to establish a local examinations system. Moreover, whereas larger countries have to establish national examinations in order to allow employers to compare job applicants, employers in Macau could find out much of what they needed to know from personal contacts. Applicants to the civil service sat a written Portuguese test but were otherwise selected on the basis of reference letters and interviews.

To some educators, this freedom from examinations might seem highly desirable. Dore (1976) deplored the distorting effect of examinations in what he called the 'diploma disease'; and linking back to the rationale for decentralization in Australia mentioned at the beginning of this paper, one objective in that country was to free schools from the external control of the rigid examination system (Chapman 1987: 64). However, the situation in Macau was not without problems. The younger schools have had no yardstick against which to prove their ability and compete against the older schools, and the lack of an examination has meant that students who wished to study or gain employment abroad were unable to present standardised credentials.

Macau may also be contrasted with Hong Kong in the provision of textbooks. Although schools in Macau are not required to choose books from an approved list, their situation cannot be considered preferable. Because Macau has a small market, commercial publishers have been unwilling to sponsor textbooks which are specifically designed for Macau pupils; and because the government has been concerned only with its own official schools, no local textbooks have been published by the government.

Accordingly, private schools have to use imported books. Most books come from Hong Kong, though some come from Taiwan and China. The books are of limited specific relevance to Macau, with the result that pupils in private schools tend to know much more about these external places than about their own society. Thus pupils using Hong Kong textbooks learn about the Hong Kong currency, the Hong Kong transportation systems, and the Hong Kong system of government. Their teachers may be able to use this information to stimulate discussion of Macau, but such extension of concepts is not always easy and cannot be taken for granted. Tang (1991) shows that eclectic importation of textbooks may be problematic even in mathematics. Many of the mathematics books used in Macau have been declared redundant even in their places of origin, and the variety of books in individual institutions obstructs presentation of a coherent curriculum.

## New Directions in the Two Territories

### *Hong Kong*

The authorities in Hong Kong have become concerned about their centralized image, and have announced various initiatives to adjust the framework. A 1987 document from the Curriculum Development Council (quoted in McClelland 1991: 115) stated that:

> there is now a need to consider whether the general strategy for curriculum development, the present organization of the CDC and the resources available to support curriculum development adequately serve current and perceived future demands.... With the general improvement of standards in schools, the upgrading of teacher training and the steady development of professionalism among teachers, consideration should now be given to the greater encouragement of school-based curriculum development in order that schools will have the means to cater for their specific needs. It is also important that more teachers should be drawn into the process of planning, implementation and evaluation of the curriculum within their own schools rather than, as at present, merely serving as members of CDC committees, valuable though their contribution has been.... A change of direction appears to be worth consideration.

Some observers question the extent to which the government is serious in its decentralization moves, and suspect that at least parts may be mere window-dressing. McClelland, for example (1991: 115), points out that procedures proposed by the CDC in 1990 for completely new examination procedures were highly centralized. He adds that a 1989 report on problems in language teaching proposed remedies that were almost exclusively located within the government's Education Department and its constituent Institute for Language in Education.

At the same time, Morris (1988) has noted the paradox that successful implementation of some aspects of decentralization requires increased rather than reduced input from the central authorities. Necessary support includes information concerning alternative curricula and resources; advice, guidance and encouragement on how to proceed; advice on evaluation; in-service training to help teachers move from a passive role to one more concerned with decision-making; and facilities and environments conducive to collaborative group discussion and resource production.

This perspective assists interpretation of a move by the government to establish a Curriculum Development Institute (Education Commission 1990: 21). Cheng (1991: 286) notes that this Institute will be part of the Education Department, and as such represents growth rather than reduction of the central bureaucracy. If the Institute operates as intended, however, it may become a centralized instrument for decentralization.

### *Macau*

While the Hong Kong government aspires to decentralize, the Macau government aspires to centralize, or at least to promote coordination. Recent reform initiatives have recognised the undesirability of the great fragmentation of the system (Macau 1991b), and the authorities are using financial incentives to encourage schools to upgrade quality. On the specific aspect of curriculum, the Macau government has commenced by collecting data on the extent of diversity (Macau 1990). The information will provide a framework for further support and control.

Macau also now has an examination open to all secondary schools, whichwas launched in 1990 by the University of Macau as an entrance requirement. It comprises one paper 'in the language which shall be the medium of instruction' at the university (i.e. for most students English, but for some Chinese or Portuguese), and one paper in mathematics. Individual faculties are permitted to set additional papers in specific subjects (Bray and Hui 1991: 196). The existence and nature of this examination is not without controversy, for it is set by a tertiary institution rather than by an independent examinations authority. However, the examination will help exert a unifying influence on the system, and will offer schools an academic yardstick against which to establish their reputations.

Macau's education reforms are also likely to improve the supply of appropriate textbooks. As the education system becomes more coherent, publishers will perceive a larger market and thus a better reason for producing books specifically for Macau schools. It also seems likely that the government will provide greater support, either through direct sponsorship of textbooks or through financial grants. This is not to say that Macau will end up with a single approved list of the Hong Kong type, but the framework will at least have more coherence than before.

## Conclusions

Although Hong Kong and Macau have many similarities in their economies, cultures and political status, their education systems are completely different. Hong Kong has a coherent education system with a strong tradition of centralization that is now moving towards some decentralization. Macau has a fragmented education system with strong institutional autonomy, but through central initiatives is now gaining greater coherence.

One reason for the differences lies in contrasting colonial histories, for British colonial policies have paid more heed to educational matters than have Portuguese policies (Bray 1992). Differences may also be ascribed to the relative sizes of the territories. With a population below 400,000, Macau has long been considered only of peripheral importance in the Portuguese empire. Also, partly because of the small population, only in 1981 was it deemed possible to establish a university in the territory. By contrast, Hong Kong has a population of nearly six million, and holds a much more significant place in the global economy. Hong Kong has had a university since 1911, and now has seven major institutions of higher education.

Referring to the international picture, Morris (1988: 1-2) identified three major rationales for decentralizing curriculum development to the school level:

a) to promote teacher involvement, initiative and professionalism, on the assumption that responsibility will be exercised more effectively when people who have to make decisions are also responsible for implementation;

b) to encourage teachers to develop programmes which are adapted to local circumstances and respond to the specific needs of the students in their schools; and

c) to reduce the gap between the planned formal curriculum and what goes on in schools.

These rationales can be advanced more convincingly in Hong Kong than Macau. Beginning with the first, Hong Kong has an increasingly professional teaching force, with high levels of training and increasing capacity to undertake the tasks created by the decentralization process. In this respect, Hong Kong's teachers resemble their counterparts in such countries as Australia and the United Kingdom which in the 1980s embarked on measures to strengthen school-based curriculum development. In Macau, by contrast, the general level of teachers' education and training is low. In 1989/90, 14.2 per cent of secondary teachers had no more than secondary education themselves (Macau 1991: 78). At the other end of the scale, 70.0 per cent were university graduates, but few had been trained as teachers.

The second rationale in Morris' list concerns adaptation of curricula to local circumstances. Hong Kong and Macau are both small territories with strong cultural homogeneity. They do not need decentralization to permit curricular adaptation to the demands of regionally-based ethnic groups in the ways that have been necessary in such countries as Zaire and Papua New Guinea (Coleman and Ngokwey 1983, Crossley 1990). However, in both Hong Kong and Macau individual schools do serve communities with different political, religious and socio-economic backgrounds, and it is therefore arguable that some differentiation is desirable. To this extent, the rationale for decentralization in Hong Kong can match that espoused elsewhere, though in Macau the present need is for greater commonality between schools rather than greater diversity.

The third rationale given for devolving curricular decisions is a desire to minimise the gap between the planned formal curriculum and what goes on in schools. Morris comments (1988: 2) that:

> It has become increasingly evident that centralized mechanisms of curriculum decision making have limited impact on the teaching and learning styles used in classrooms. SBCD School Based Curriculum Development is seen to have the potential to reduce this dissonance between plans and practices.

Again, this is more applicable to Hong Kong than to Macau. In the latter, centralized mechanisms cannot have any impact on what happens in the classroom, simply because such centralized mechanisms do not exist! The first priority, therefore, is to create a framework. Only then can structures be set up to ensure curriculum implementation. Thus the difference between the two territories can again be ascribed to the different evolution of their education systems. In Macau it is necessary first to centralize, and only later to decentralize. Marsh and Huberman (1984) have made a case for top-down curriculum dissemination in certain circumstances. Macau at the present time would seem to be a case in point.

This paper has also highlighted the role of examinations. In contrast to Australia, for example, Hong Kong society has high acceptance of the dominance of examinations. McClelland (1991) described this as a local cultural trait, though it has also had much to do with the high rates of return from tertiary education (Chung and Wong 1992), entrance to which was controlled by academic examinations. In Macau tertiary education did not exist until recently, and so was unable to exert its dominance; and although Macau also has a dominant Chinese culture, the fact that Macau never had an open examination system meant that there was nothing to which the population could defer. Now that an open examination system has been created in Macau, it seems probable that it will have a centralizing impact on the system. Tang (1991) notes that it has already had some impact on mathematics curricula.

A further question concerns the extent of convergence of different systems. Broadfoot (1985) observed that the education systems of England, which was traditionally decentralized, and France, which was traditionally centralized, are in some respects converging. The same might be said of Hong Kong and Macau, though like other societies (Weiler 1989, Schubert 1990, Lewy 1991) they may find themselves involved in a constant swing from centralization to decentralization and back again.

A final contribution of this paper is to concepts and definitions. Although the Hong Kong system is commonly described as centralized, some major curriculum decisions are taken at the school level. The most prominent of these is in the language of instruction. A second area concerns textbooks, for although schools are only permitted to use books that are on an approved list, at least they do have some decision making power. This suggests that adjectives such as centralized and decentralized are rather blunt, and cannot easily capture the complexity of specific systems.

At the same time, the paper has noted that in order to achieve a form of decentralization, it can be necessary at least in the short run to provide more central inputs rather than fewer. The creation of the Curriculum Development Institute might seem a further concentration of resources in the central government machinery, but it is arguable that such a body is necessary if decentralization is really to be achieved. This paradox should be taken into account to avoid over-generalized descriptions of the system.

Likewise, one might question in what sense Macau is decentralized. The answer would be in the degree of autonomy of individual institutions. However, there is perhaps a difference between decentralization and disorganization. Decentralization is usually seen as a deliberate process of devolution of responsibility. In this sense, perhaps the Macau system needs first to be centralized before it can really be decentralized.

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# Implications of Decentralization: The Case of Basic Education in China[1]

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China's education has undergone spectacular reform which started since 1985. Central to this reform is the decentralization of finance and administration for education. In the case of basic education, this involves localizing governmental responsibilities and mobilizing community resources. The decentralization has granted new dimensions of autonomy to the community and hence created a sense of local ownership, which in turn has aroused new initiatives for funding education. The decentralization, however, has also given rise to disparity between regions and often within regions. With further reforms in the system, the disparity is likely to grow and will affect further development of basic education.

**教育管理及財政下放對中國基礎教育之影響**

中國大陸之教育自1985年改革以來，已形成管理及財政方面的下放局面。在基礎教育而言，實行「分級管理」，地方政府及農村社區成爲基礎教育財政主要來源，社區因而有更大的自主權，對學校產生擁有感，因而創出民間辦學的熱誠及機制。與此同時，由於依賴地方資源，教育發展出現地區差異而趨向分化。隨着改革的進一步進展，此類分化可能加劇，因而影響基礎教育的進一步發展。

## Introduction

Decentralization has always been an item on the policy agenda in many countries. China, with its vast territory and enormous population, should be no exception. However, decentralization in China started only in the early 1980s, after the introduction of market elements in the economy. Reform in public finance plays an essential role in the process of decentralization. One of the most significant reforms along this orientation has been the financing of basic education, which has virtually become localized and largely non-governmental. This article purports (a) to describe the policy measures arising from such reform, (b) the effect of such reform on education expenditures, and (c) the effect of such reform on achievements in education.

## The Financial Reform

One of the major reforms in China in the decade past has been reform in the system of finance. The financial reform has the virtual effect of localizing the financing and management of basic education.

China, having been a centralized system with planned economy in the thirty years since 1949, was used to a centralized system of taxation and expenditures. In principle, most of the revenues collected by local governments were submitted to the central government, who then re-allocated the funding to local governments who spent according to formulae stipulated by the central government. In essence, the nation was one entity where the local governments were but administrative arms of the central government. Little decision was made at local levels in terms of revenue collection and expenditures.

The scene changed dramatically since early 1980, very much prompted by the lessons learnt during the Cultural Revolution, which virtually put the nation's economy into disasters during the 1970s. Reform started with the rural economy, which practically dismantled the collective People's Communes. All kinds of incentive systems were established to encourage individual endeavour in improving productivity and income. This was followed by the granting of financial and management autonomy to industrial and commercial enterprises. All these breakthroughs brought spectacular change in the economy. They have also paved way for reform towards a locally based financial system.

Under the reformed financial system, the local governments retain a substantial percentage of the revenues collected in their localities. The local governments then submit to the central government the amount which is appropriate to their respective economic strengths. The general tendency is an increased share of both revenue collection and expenditures by local governments. Different provinces have different patterns of sharing, with the net combined effects that provinces are encouraged to retain more when they produce and collect more, meanwhile with a proportionate contribution to the centre. In economically highly active places like Shanghai, the submission to the central is considerable, mainly as a support to national expenditures. In the open economic zones, such as Guangdong and Fujian, as an incentive, the submission is a fixed sum in absolute terms. Provinces in deficit receive proportionate transfers from the centre; here the central government pays a subsidy which supposedly plays an equalization role. The actual patterns are more complicated than these simple summaries and change rapidly over time[2].

It has to be added that the term "local" is relative. The financial devolution does not stop at the provincial (first sub-national) level. Most provinces follow the same model and devolve the financial responsibilities to lower level governments, mostly to counties, sometimes to townships.

## Localization of Revenues

As a consequence of localization of finance, basic education expenditures are expected to be mainly supported by local resources. Such local resources occur in at least four major components: state appropriation, local finance, community contribution and school-generated income.

*State appropriation* refers to funding committed by the national government. It literally means funds handed down by the central government. This used to be the actual situation. After the financial reform, much of the state appropriation comes from local revenues. The "state", which used to mean the central government has now become a fuzzy concept which may include all levels of contributing governments. However, such funding has to be spent according to formulae stipulated by the central government, a situation of "the central hosting the banquet; the local footing the bill". However, funding still comes from the central government in special grants used for specific purposes or special programmes, or as subsidy to under-developed regions. Such funding is comparatively small. Indeed, not much is directly collected by the central government apart from a few major taxes and income generated by state-run enterprises.

*Local finance* carries the dual meaning of revenues collected by local governments and funds committed by the local government. The term "local" is a relative concept which may mean provincial, prefecture, county or township governments. Local finance used to play a minimal part in the financing of education. After the financial reform, local finance plays the double role of fulfilling some of the commitments of the central government (i.e., state appropriation) and fulfilling other financial responsibilities which are transferred from the central government as part of the reform. Local revenues come from taxes which are allocated to local governments. There are also surcharges levied upon production, commercial and value-added taxes and sometimes upon agricultural taxes.

*Community contribution* comes from donations. Donations come from rich farmers, local factories or other enterprises or voluntary collective contribution from local farmers. Donations are possible only after the economic reform. First, only then surpluses become significant. Second, factories and enterprises have the discretion to spend the surplus. Donations also come from overseas Chinese who, by tradition, volunteers to contribute to education in their native villages. Donations usually occur by independent projects. In some places, local donations are aggregated in a People's Education Foundation[3] so that it becomes another major pool of resources.

*School-generated incomes* often come from school-operated factories, school-run shops or rents received by leasing out a part of the campus for commercial use. They may also come from a piece of designated land, forest or orchard whose incomes are earmarked for school use. Such income-generating activities are often known as "work-study" (*qinggong jianxue*) programmes.

## Financing of basic Education

The decentralization of financing in education occurs in two dimensions. In one dimension, there is a downward devolution of financial responsibilities. In the other dimension, there is a diversification of sources of funding at all levels.

### *Downward devolution*

The model of decentralization in basic education in mainland China is known as "management by levels" (*fenji guanli*). In more concrete terms, it is known as "sponsorship at three levels, management at two levels" (*sanji banxue, liangji quanli*). Here, "sponsorship" (*banxue*) carries the connotation of "financing" on the one hand and "ownership" on the other. In practice, this means that primary schools are sponsored by villages, junior secondary schools by townships and senior secondary schools by counties[4]. Meanwhile, senior secondary schools are managed by the county authority, whereas junior secondary schools are managed by the township authority. Primary schools, however, are also managed by the township authority because there is no government structure at village level.

In the ideal case, the decentralized system should comprise at least one primary school in each village, which is sponsored by the villagers; at least one junior secondary school for each township, which is sponsored by the township through the township government, and at least one senior secondary school in each county, which is sponsored by the county through the county government.

In a statistical sense, this is becoming the reality. Latest statistics show that in 1990, there were 743,278 villages[5] (State Statistics Bureau [SSB], 1991, p.311) and there were 697,228 rural primary schools (State Education Commission [SEDC], 1991, p.242), an average of 0.94 primary school in each village. Meanwhile, there were 57,321 junior secondary schools in the rural areas which consists of 44,446 townships, an average of 1.3 junior secondary schools in each township (SSB, 1991, p.311; SEDE, 1991, p.180). There were far more rural senior secondary schools than counties, mainly because of relative concentration of resources in the counties.

The overall figures, however, do not reveal the disparity that exists in the complex reality. The existence of one or more schools with senior secondary classes[6] in a county is almost a matter of rule. It is also common to have at least one junior secondary school in a township, often situated at the seat of the township government. Nevertheless, the situations with primary schools are more complicated. The general pattern is to have a centre school in the seat of the township government. The centre school oversees and sometimes supervises other schools which are scattered in the township either as village schools or as teaching sites (i.e. extensions) in sparse parts of the village. The number of such schools depends very much on the financial strength of the township and also on the geographic distribution of population.

After all, since 1980, there is a shift of responsibility in expenditures so that local governments are responsible for the major part of expenditures in basic education. In most provinces, counties have become the major "cost centres" of basic education. Where possible, financing of rural schools has become a major responsibility of the township government. It is in fact stipulated in the reform document (Reform, 1985) that township revenues should be mainly spent on basic education. It is also stipulated (Law, 1986) that local government may levy educational surcharge over local taxes and such revenues collected should be used entirely on basic education[7]. Since there is no formal government structure in the villages, financing of education at village level actually means donations collected from the community, apart from different appropriations wherever available.

### *Multiple sources of funding*

The reform has created a situation that for each school funding comes from multiple resources. The following attempts to depict the situation.

*Recurrent costs* which contain mainly salaries and administrative expenses, are supported by the "state". Salaries here refers to salaries of teachers on the government payroll. Teachers' salaries follow a uniform master pay scale which allows little variation among provinces. However, in rural villages, most of the teachers in basic education are not on the government payroll. They are community-supported teachers (the *minban* teachers) whose salaries are partly subsidized by state appropriation and partly supported by local finance[8], often supplemented by community contribution. The amount of the state subsidy in 1986 was 260 *yuan* per annum for primary school teachers and 280 *yuan* for secondary school teachers. The provincial government adds a discretionary subsidy and the balance has to be paid by the township government or even to rely on community support. In practice, educational levies usually go to community-supported teachers.

*Capital construction* relies heavily on donations from the community. It used to be the case that capital construction was a commitment of the national government who takes care not only of the finance but also the supply of building materials. The state commitment has degenerated to an incentive system which reduces state contribution to a minimal. Numerous school buildings have been built where the largest portion of the investment comes from community donations. In these cases, the local government often dishes out incentive money (the "bait") in order to attract larger contribution from the community (the "fish"), a widespread pattern often known as "fishing". The incentive money comes from local revenues. Hence, in short, capital construction is enabled by a combination of local finance and community contribution, the latter plays an essential role.

*Other non-recurrent expenses* such as improvement of school facilities are paid by funds obtained from economic activities conducted by schools, in the above-mentioned "work-study" programmes. Such programmes received privileged taxation terms so that most of the surpluses are exempted from production taxes if they are spent on school facilities or reinvestment. Such income, however, are not supposed to be spent on teachers' individual incomes.

## Local Contributions to Education

The policy of decentralization has effectively mobilized local resources. This takes place in a number of senses. First, in 1990, local contribution amounted to 88.5% of the *overall* national educational expenditures (SEDC & Shanghai Institute for Human Resources Development [SIHRD], 1991b). In other words, there is a devolution of financial responsibility such that the central government contributes to only a small percentage of the total national educational expenditures.

Second, in the same year, contribution from the local governments accounts for 86.9% (1990) of the state appropriation (i.e. *budgeted* expenditures) (SEDC & SIHRD, 1991b). That is, what is "state" in terms of finance has become largely local governments.

Third, further breakdown shows that local contribution dominates in most of different components of educational expenditures, as is shown in Table 1 below.

In the Chinese convention, expenditures are often classified by earmarked sources of resources. The non-local elements in "budgeted expenditures" and "expenditures paid by work-study programmes" refer mainly to institutions of higher education which are run by central ministries. They are minimal in basic education. The "allocation to enterprise schools" are funds allocated to ministries which operate their own schools at various levels. Education levies are entirely spent on basic education and hence is 100% local. Moreover, in terms of primary education, which is the major endeavour of education especially in rural areas, local expenditures constituted 99.97% of total national expenditures in 1989 (SEDC & SIHRD, 1991a).

Table 1: Local Share as percentage of Educational Expenditures in 1990

| Component | % |
|---|---|
| Budgeted expenditures | 86.9 |
| Paid by education levies | 100.0 |
| Allocation to enterprise schools | 66.9 |
| Paid by work-study programme/services | 88.2 |
| Total governmental expenditures | 86.9 |
| Total due to community contributions | 99.4 |

*Source:* Calculated from SEDC and SIHRD, 1991b, p.8.

Fourth, in terms of non-state resources ("non-budgeted" incomes), contribution from local sources are understandably significant, as is shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Local Contribution as percentage of Educational Incomes in 1990

| Incomes | % |
|---|---|
| From work-study programmes/services | 82.0 |
| From educational levies | 100.0 |
| From tuition and other fees | 97.9 |
| From donations and collections | 99.4 |
| Total non-budgeted income | 96.0 |
| Total budgeted income | 86.9 |
| Overall income | 89.6 |

*Source:* Calculated from SEDC & SIHRD 1991b, p.11.

Incomes which are not appropriated by the "state" (i.e. non-budgeted incomes) are almost totally generated by local sources (over 95%). Again, the major non-local source of income comes from work-study programmes which exist in institutions of higher education that operate under central ministries.

## Mobilization of Community Resources

In the Chinese context, community resources here refer to *non-budgeted incomes which are local*. In terms of basic education, such incomes include the following items often referred to as the "multiple channels" (*duoqudao*) of educational funding (SEDC, 1988, p.107):

- Income generated by work-study programmes
- Income due to tuition or miscellaneous fees
- Education surcharge levied from urban or rural taxes
- Local collection and donations, which comprise:
  donations from local individuals
  donations from local enterprises
  donations from overseas Chinese or from Hong Kong/Macau
  donations from other sources
- Contributions from enterprises to their own schools

The mobilized local resources contribute to a number of achievements in basic education. The most significant of these occurs in capital construction. In the second half of the 1980s, there was a "campaign" among rural villages to establish or re-build school buildings. The campaign was initiated because of a number of accidents where students were hurt or killed by "dilapidated buildings". The campaign has effectively reduced the percentage of such "dilapidated buildings" from 17% in 1980 to 4.4% in 1989 (Zhongguo Jiaoyu Bao, March 17, 1990). This is witnessed by the writer in various case studies (See, for example, Cheng, 1991, 1992d; SIHRD, 1991; World Bank, 1991). In the villages visited, it is not unusual to observe that schools stand out as the most impressive buildings in the neighbourhood. This is especially the case with villages in the less developed areas.

In Guizhou, for example, a large number of school buildings were installed in the late 1980s. The new schools were built in stones which were quite a contrast with village houses around which were mainly made of wood. Some of the villages establish stone tablets in memory of the campaign[9]. Recorded on the tablets are accounts of individual donations against the donors. The amounts could be as small as five *yuan*[10].

In other cases, for example in Liaoning, local donors include local enterprises or individual entrepreneurs (*wanyuanhu*). They contribute to multistorey school buildings either in cash or in kind. Donations in kind may come through either in the form of building materials at token price (e.g. bricks @.01 *yuan*) or construction labour at token fees.

Donations are often matched by incentive "baits" from the government under the "fishing" policy mentioned above. The donation-allocation ratio varied, ranging from 1 : 20 to 5 : 5 according to local policies and relative local financial strengths. It is also usual, for example, that the donors are required to complete a school laboratory in order that the government equips it; or the donors are expected to complete a school building before the government furnishes the rooms.

The mobilized local resources have also enabled local governments to improve the salary of community-supported teachers. In Zhejiang, for example, the provincial policy has almost guaranteed that community teachers receive a salary comparable to teachers on the government payroll. In order that this be possible, the provincial government provides a substantial subsidy to the community teachers on top of the subsidy required by the national policy. The provincial government also makes sure that local governments pay the balance. Although different provinces have different policies appropriate to their respective financial strength, the overall increase in the income of teachers salaries is significant.

The above discussion indicates an unmistakable trend of reliance on local funding as well as community resources. Such a reliance facilitates a sense of local ownership of schools and hence mobilizes local and community resources which are otherwise untapped. The overall level of funding of education has increased significantly.

## Regional Disparity in Recurrent Expenditures

The increasing reliance on local and community resources are not without prices. Regional disparity emerged almost as soon as decentralization started. The regional disparity is comprehensive, occurring in almost all aspects of basic education. The following is an attempt to look at some of the basic indications of this disparity and to trace the sources of such disparity.

### *Disparity in State Appropriation*

Recent reports on local educational expenditures reveal a large range of total per capita educational expenditures. The range in 1990 extended from 126 *yuan* in Beijing to 30 *yuan* in Guizhou (SEDC & SIHRD, 1991b, p.52). The national medium was around 50 *yuan* (SEDC & SIHRD, 1991b, p.17). The range was similar in 1988 (Beijing, 113 *yuan* to Guizhou, 23 *yuan*) (SEDC & SIHRD, 1991a, p.110). and 1989 (Beijing, 137 *yuan* to Guizhou, 29 *yuan*) (SEDC & SIHRD, 1991a, p.39).

The disparity is particularly significant in the expenditures on primary education, as is shown in per student budgeted expenditures (i.e., from the "state") for primary schools in Table 3. Bearing in mind that budgeted expenditures are supported by local finance, which is in turn a reflection of local revenues, it is understandable that provinces which are economically stronger are in a better position to pay more on students. In the present economic structure of China, rural areas which are strong in their economies are where the rural industries thrive. Such industries contribute directly to local revenues through taxation. As is mentioned earlier, local revenues are required to be spent mainly on basic education.

Table 3: Per Student Budgeted Expenditures for Primary Schools Selected Provinces (in RMB *yuan*)

| | 1988 | 1989 | 1990 |
|---|---|---|---|
| Beijing | 217.82 | 246.03 | 289.65 |
| Zhejiang | 102.75 | 119.85 | 131.98 |
| Shaanxi | 74.06 | 78.82 | 92.37 |
| Shantung | 58.65 | 68.28 | 77.05 |
| Hubei | 45.08 | 46.44 | 61.46 |
| National Average | 77.41 | 90.90 | 105.44 |

*Source:* SEDC & SIHRD, 1991b, pp.82, 146; 1991a, p.113

### *Disparity in Local Finance*

Among the implications of regional disparity, teachers' salaries are the most affected. This can been seen in two aspects. Community teachers' salaries suffer most. As mentioned earlier, community teachers are paid by a subsidy which is a combination of state subsidy and local supplement, plus community contributions. In 1989, the average subsidy that a community teacher received was 444.8 *yuan* per year[11]. However, in the same year, six provinces failed to reach the 400 *yuan* mark. In Hubei, the total subsidy to each community teacher was 206.5 *yuan*, even lower than the 260 *yuan* which is the subsidy level required by the central government (SEDC & SIHRD, 1991a, p.35).

The disparity in subsidy is obviously a matter of local revenues. The case of Hubei, for example is explicable by the fact that most of the industries in Hubei are state-run and contribute comparatively little to local revenues. The writer witnessed in Shaanxi, for example, places where there were so few nonagricultural activities that local revenues were practically nonexistent. It was therefore not possible to establish a township government because there was no available resources to set up a local financial system. Teachers in these areas (even teachers on the government payroll) had difficulties at times when the local government (mostly at county level) was not able to pay. The teachers received a "white slip" (*baitiao*, a kind of "I-owe-you") instead[12].

### *Disparity in Community Contributions*

If the government subsidy sees a great disparity, then the disparity among community contribution to community teachers is even greater. The writer has also witnessed cases where the government subsidy was practically zero and the community was not able to pay. The community teachers hence eat from door to door, known as eating the "hundred family meals" (*baijiafan*).

These are in great contrast to cases such as Zhejiang or Liaoning where the government almost guarantees a definite subsidy while local communities are able to offer salaries comparable or even higher than those in the public sector. These are the places where education benefits from decentralization. If it were to work under more or less uniform allocation of resources, community teachers in these areas would continue to suffer from chronic shortage of funds.

Disparity in community contribution and disparity in local finance are two sides of the same coin. Where local revenues are rich, individual incomes are also high and hence community donations are more readily available.

## Disparity in Capital Constructions

In terms of capital construction, as mentioned above in all kinds of "fishing" exercises, both the government and the local community contribute. Yet, both sources of income are affected by the local economy. The local economic situations affect local revenues and hence affect the government's ability to practise "fishing" policies. The local economy also affects the actual income of community members and hence influences their ability to make donations.

Table 4 shows the per capita expenditure on educational capital construction again in selected provinces.

Table 4: Per capita Capital Expenditures in Education (Selected Provinces) (in *yuan*) in 1990

| Beijing | Zhejiang | Shaanxi | Shantung | Hubeip |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13.48 | 1.23 | 1.73 | 0.83 | 0.89 |

*Note:* Calculated from SEDC & SIHRD, 1991b, pp.50, 83.

The disparity is enormous. The figures account for all levels of education. That is, much of the budgeted capital expenditures are spent on higher education. Breakdown of figures for different levels of education is not available. However, it is obvious that budgeted capital expenditures on basic education are even more dependent on local revenues and should display an even greater regional disparity. In other words, given the viability of all kinds of "fishing" measures, the ability of local governments to dish out the "baits" and the size and attractiveness of the "baits" vary tremendously.

There is disparity among the "fishes" as well. The "fishes" are normally donations from community members or local enterprises. For comparison reasons, again we look at per capita values, as is shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Per Capita Community Donation to Education (Selected Provinces, in *yuan*) in 1990

| Beijing | Zhejiang | Shaanxi | Shantung | Hubeip |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 2.31 | 4.39 | 4.12 | 3.66 | 5.17 |

*Source:* Calculated from SEDC & SIHRD, 1991b, pp.50, 83.

Again the distribution between levels has subsumed under overall figures. Field study witnessed cases where the local entrepreneur and rich farmers donated generously to building schools in the locality. Such buildings can be multistorey (as is the case in Liaoning) equipped with elegant furniture and fixture. In these cases, financial decentralization has obviously brought fruit to education.

However, there were also cases where "fishing" failed because the anticipated community contributions did not come forth. If it is a totally agricultural community, there is little industry and commerce around. Enterprises and entrepreneurs are simply non-existent in the community. Donations at best come from poor individuals as is the case with Guizhou mentioned above. Such donations cannot last long. It is not unusual to find in less developed villages that the villagers have tried their best to install a new school building, but have found extreme difficulties in furnishing and equipping the school.

It has to be added, however, that such a disparity is not only attributable to the financial strength of the locality. There are also cases where either the farmers are not interested in education (which is rare), or where the local government has adopted unpopular policies so that "fishing" virtually becomes compulsory requisition and meets resistance. Notwithstanding all this, the economic status of the locality still plays an essential part.

## Disparity with School-generated Incomes

As mentioned earlier, much of the non-recurrent expenditures in schools apart from capital construction are supported by income-generating activities known as "work-study" programmes. The effectiveness of such activities in supporting school expenditures is again dependent upon the local economy.

The most profitable "work-study" programmes are school factories. Such factories often rely upon major industries in nearby cities. School factories prosper in places where the economy is flexible and the market is thriving. The success of "work-study" programmes therefore reflects success of the economy in the region. Where the economy stands still, or when there is little spill-over from the larger economy, then there is little schools can do to generate income. Hence, although "work-study" programmes are seen as an important means to supplement funds allocated from outside the school, such a supplement is more effective in economically more prospering areas. In other words, "work-study" programme in reality exacerbates rather than reduces regional disparity.

This is again evident in the field. There could be school factories which generate millions per year; there could be school factories which suffer constantly from deficits. Some rich rural areas earmark whole pieces of land or orchard whose harvest goes to the school. In poor areas, schools have to send their teachers and students to pick wood, mushrooms, fruits and even lizard (as a kind of Chinese medicine) to earn a meagre income for the years' school expenditures. Moreover, there were villages (in Guizhou, for example) where neither the government nor the local community is able to commit themselves to school expenditures. In the extreme case, the school teachers have to walk three hours every month to the county town in order to receive his rationed amount of chalk. Hence the following remark is justifiable:

> Analysis of the input indicators demonstrates that substandard per capita educational input is mainly attributable to poor financial strength and monolithic finance source. The effect of the later is greater than the former. (SEdC & SIHRD, 1991b, p.40)

## Disparity in Output

Decentralization has facilitated local initiatives and mobilized local resources. Much of the achievement in China's basic education in the past decade is attributable to the introduction of decentralization. As is seen above, China is not immune from the usual disease — regional disparity — which is brought about by decentralization. However, the above discussion concentrates on financial decentralization and the ramifications of financial decentralization on capital construction, teachers' salaries, school facilities and so forth. Such elements nonetheless pertain only to *input* to education. The implications on educational *output* needs some closer examination.

### *Disparity in Education Development*

The first issue is about the implication on education development. By education development we mean development in the education system. In basic education, the central issue in development is enrolment.

A recent research endeavoured by Hao et al (1991, pp.145-58) reveals some complex aspects of this issue. With an effort to associate economic development with the development of compulsory education for all the 2,126 counties in China in 1989, Hao et al. argue that economic development provides basic constraints to education development. However, they also argue that the relation between economic development and education development is not a "one-to-one correspondence". In particular, the degree of universalization of basic education did not lineally correlate with the basic economic indicator[13]. In Table 6 below, Hao et al. compares the percentage of counties in each economic category with the percentage of counties which have achieved universal education.

In general, among counties of higher per capita income, there were higher percentage of them having achieved universal primary education. However, there were still a large number of counties with high per capita income which were yet to achieve universal primary education. Meanwhile, there were quite a few counties with low per capita income which had achieved universal primary education. Hence, although economic development is a basic condition (and constraint) for education development, the former is not the only predictor of the latter. In policy terms, in order to improve enrolment, much can still be done besides funding.

Table 6: Economic Income versus Universal Education (1989)

| Farmers per capita net annual income RMB | Number of counties in each category | Number of countries with universal primary education | % of total |
|---|---|---|---|
| >1,000 | 75 | 66 | 88.0 |
| 800 - 1,000 | 94 | 80 | 85.1 |
| 600 - 800 | 404 | 350 | 86.6 |
| 400 - 600 | 851 | 666 | 78.3 |
| 300 - 400 | 416 | 256 | 61.5 |
| 200 - 300 | 260 | 116 | 44.6 |
| <200 | 69 | 16 | 23.2 |

*Source:* Extracted from Hao et al, 1991, Table 1.

### *Disparity in Student Achievement*

The effect of input disparity on student learning is even more complex and is yet to be explored. Recent research on student learning and their learning environment in Zhejiang does not reveal expected associations between student attainment and their economic environment. Comparing across localities of different economic status, student attainments demonstrate a greater disparity within localities than between localities. Factors within schools seem to prevail over factors external to schools[14].

This has to be considered together with the cultural heritage which place high values on education and hence there is an internalized motivation for learning among students. The country, until the time of research, used uniform curriculum and uniform textbooks, with teaching strategies again more or less uniform. Hence, the disparity among student achievement was anyway not dramatic, as is the case with Japan and other countries in the East Asian confucian community.

## Disparity and Development

There is a basic issue which pertains to the relations between education and development. If education is seen as a basic element to development, then one should make greater investment in education in the less developed areas of China. On the contrary, if education development is seen basically as a reflection of economic development, then one would not expect much progress in education when the general economy in these areas is still under-developed.

In this respect, the development literature has moved away from simple dichotomic cause-effect arguments. The education-development interaction is complex and there is no single straightforward solution[15]. However, the perception of the policy-maker about this education-development relationship may affect their attitudes towards regional disparity and policies thus made may or nay not bring about actions to reduce disparity. The Chinese case, as identified in recent research efforts[16], seems to suggest that the policy picture is clearer if pure economic targets are replaced by goals of human resources development. In the least developed areas, it is difficult to conceive direct contribution of education to economic growth. However, improvement in literacy, health, fertility, attitudes and other human resources elements in these areas are essential to long-term development. Yet, this is achievable through education.

## Concluding Remarks

The reform in Mainland China proves to be an overhaul to the system. Education is no exception. Supported by economic and financial reform, reform in education starts with the system of finance and management. There is a virtual decentralization of education in general and basic education in particular. Decentralization has brought with it new resources for education: local revenues, community donations and non-governmental agents. Decentralization by its nature nationally brings about regional disparity. Given that the reformed financial system has left little for the Central government, not much is done in terms of equalization. The regional disparity is likely to increase and may have tremendous effects on the country's future education.

On the one hand, the disparity just created could be seen as an adverse imbalance in the country. On the other hand, one may also argue that in a vast country like China, uniformity as it enjoyed in the past was just artificial and unrealistic.

## Notes

[1] This paper was presented at the VIIIth World Congress of Comparative Education, Prague, July 9-14, 1992. Some parts of the paper were presented at *International Conference on Education, Social Change and Regional Development*, co-organized by the Faculty of Education and the Centre of Asian Studies, the University of Hong Kong, June 23-25, 1992.

[2] A summary of the reform can be found in The World Bank (1988, pp.436-44). The summary, however, was due to a study in 1986 and did not cover changes that occurred after 1985.

[3] The People's Education Foundation is an innovation which started in Pingdu county of Shandong. See translation of the major experience in Cheng (1992b).

[4] The basic school system in Mainland China comprises six-year primary, three-year junior secondary and three-year senior secondary. There are variations where primary schools are five years in duration.

[5] The number refers to Villagers' Committees which are the neighbourhood structure in "administrative" villages. Often, such villages comprise smaller villages, known as inhabitant groups. Children in these inhabitant groups are often catered for by school branches known as "teaching sites" which are not included in the school numbers.

[6] Senior secondary education may exist either in independent senior secondary schools or in schools which operate junior as well as senior secondary classes. The latter are known as "complete" secondary schools.

[7] Translations of the relevant documents can be found in Cheng (1992a).

[8] In 1990, 41.3% of primary school teachers were not on the government payroll. These do not include non-teaching staff who were also supported by local finance and community contribution. There is also a large number of "substitute" teachers (over 138,000) who are under long-term employment but who are not on the government payroll (SEDC 1991, pp.258-9, 266-67).

[9] A picture of such a tablet can be found in Cheng (1992c).

[10] Around USD 1.35 by 1989 exchange rate (at the time of visit).

[11] This is effectively the subsidy as expected by the central, 260 *yuan* and a provincial supplement. In other words, the average provincial supplement was around 185 *yuan*. Because of the fact that centrally committed payments are paid through local revenues, the distinction between the subsidy required by the central government and the provincial supplement has become blurred in recent years.

[12] This happened to even teachers on the government payroll.

[13] Based on the "farmers per capita annual net income". This is indicator wisely used in China to compare the economic strength of rural regions. The indicator is crude but useful.

[14] See Cheng, (1992d) Chapter 9 (Forthcoming).

[15] A most recent discussion on the issue can be found in Ahmed et al (1991).

[16] The most noticeable recent research endeavour is perhaps the UNICEF supported project as published in SIHRD, (1991).

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# Origins and Development of Early Childhood Educator Training in Hong Kong

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The present article examines the training of the two types of persons who work in early education and care settings in Hong Kong, kindergarten teachers and child care workers in day nurseries. It also discusses some of the reasons for the existing differences between training in the two sectors such as legislation, origins and development of services, and the actual number of early childhood educators involved.

**香港學前教育工作者的培訓：起源及發展**

本文探討香港的幼稚園教師和幼兒中心工作人員的培訓情況，並從法例、服務的起源和發展、在職人數等角度，探究兩種培訓制度的產生原因。

In Hong Kong almost the entire age cohort of children aged 3 to 6 years, or some 223,000 children attend a preschool. This large number of young children in early education and care settings reflects the importance that the Chinese traditionally attach to education and their "ardent and striking desire for education" (Hong Kong Government Education Department [HKED], 1958). Moreover, in Hong Kong's highly competitive society where graduation from a university usually leads to a higher paid job and where only a small proportion of the population enter one of the local universities, parents believe that the sooner their child starts formal schooling the better his chances of admission to a university and thus the better his prospects of a more secure future. Preschools in Hong Kong are considered to be the first rung in the ladder of formal schooling to prepare children for primary school where they are already "assumed to have some fundamental attainment" (Education Commission, 1986, p.39).

Although the two types of Hong Kong preschools, kindergartens and day nurseries, cater for children of a similar age range, there are a number of differences between them. One of these is legislation. Kindergartens which generally offer half-day programmes come under the regulations of the Education Department. They provide a one to three year course of education suitable for children between the age of 3 years and the time of entry to primary school (HKED, 1981a) which is usually around 6 years. Day nurseries are registered with the Social Welfare Department and provide non-residential care and supervision for groups of more than 5 children aged 2 to 6 years who regularly attend a particular centre. They also try to ensure that the children receive a standard of care which is of positive benefit to them physically, socially, emotionally and intellectually. Kindergartens therefore emphasize the education function whereas nurseries emphasize care and overall development, although in actual practice the differences may not be quite so clearcut.

Adults working in these two types of preschools, referred to collectively here as early childhood educators, have different titles which reflect this difference in emphasis. In kindergartens they are called teachers whereas in day nurseries they are child care workers. There are also differences between the two sectors in their training provisions and in the numbers of trained staff. In 1990 there were 7,429 kindergarten teachers, only 42 percent of whom were trained (HKED, 1991). No figures are published on the number of trained child care workers, but since legislation requires that all such persons undergo a recognized course of training within one year of entering service it is likely that the proportion of trained nursery staff is high, possibly around 90 percent. The present article examines the reasons for the discrepancy in training between kindergarten and nursery staff by focussing on the origins and development of training in these two sectors in Hong Kong.

## Kindergarten Teacher Training

The development of kindergarten teacher training in Hong Kong is closely related to the recent history of the territory, in particular to the increase in population over the years. In 1945 the population of Hong Kong was estimated to be approximately 600,000 (Hong Kong Government, 1945). By 1957 the estimated figure was 2,670,000 (Hong Kong Government, 1957) and the 1987 Annual Report gives the population as 5,588,000 (Hong Kong Government, 1987). The tremendous increase by 1957 was to a large extent due to the influx of refugees from the mainland as a result of the civil war and turmoil in China. The newcomers needed to work and frequently both parents were employed which created "a noticeable local demand for kindergartens" (HKED, 1955). Since no systematic provisions for teacher training at this level existed in Hong Kong prior to 1950 kindergarten teachers received their training elsewhere. *Ad hoc* courses were however organized locally for kindergarten teachers which attracted record attendances (HKED, 1950).

In 1950-52 the first official local training course for kindergarten teachers was introduced at Northcote Teacher Training College, a primary teacher training institute (Hong Kong Government, 1950). This 2-year part-time course was conducted by a kindergarten teacher who had been sponsored by the Hong Kong Government to follow a Froebel kindergarten training in England. The course was discontinued after 1952. In 1953 the post of Education Officer was created within the newly established Kindergarten Section of the Education Department and the kindergarten teacher previously in charge of the kindergarten training course in Northcote was appointed to this position. Three years later, in 1956, the Kindergarten Section launched a 2-year part-time training course for 20 students which continued to be run every two years (Hong Kong Government, 1956). By 1979 the annual intake for this course was 50 students (Hong Kong Government, 1979). Despite the small regular supply of trained kindergarten teachers provided by this training programme, their proportion declined from 36 percent in 1958 (HKED, 1958), to 20 percent in 1971 (HKED, 1971) and 14 percent in 1981 (HKED, 1981b).

The steady decline in trained staff was due to the dramatic increase in kindergarten enrolment during the period 1950-1980. Stiff competition for places in the elite primary schools resulted in the introduction of entrance examinations for primary one pupils. In the belief that preprimary education would help their child pass these exams parents enrolled their children in kindergartens. The number of kindergartens increased to meet this demand. In 1958 only 18,559 children attended 209 kindergartens. By 1971 this figure had risen to 140,960 in 875 kindergartens and in 1981 it was 206,578 in 762 kindergartens. In view of the shortage of trained kindergarten teachers, many of these establishments had no choice but to employ untrained ones.

A parallel increase in the average teacher:child ratio also occurred during this period. The ratio of one adult to 25 children in 1958 increased to 1:35 in 1971 and to 1:38 in 1981. At this time it was evident that kindergarten education was in an alarming state with the majority of children in large classes under the supervision of untrained teachers. Something needed to be done to improve the situation. In 1981 the Government brought out a policy paper on early education, the White Paper on Primary Education and Preprimary Services (Hong Kong Government, 1981). This document highlighted the need for an expanded programme of kindergarten teacher training to improve the quality and quantity of trained teachers and proposed certain targets to require kindergartens to employ a substantial proportion of trained teachers. For example, by 1986 45 percent of kindergarten staff were expected to be trained, by 1988 this figure was expected to reach 60 percent and by 1992 to reach 90 percent. The White Paper further expressed the intention "to provide preservice initial training for kindergarten teachers along the lines similar to that now provided for primary school teachers" (p. 11), as well as to create a new training institute in 1984 which would be well-equipped and would offer training for both kindergarten teachers and child care workers.

Finally, the White Paper recommended the implementation of a two-tiered training programme consisting of a short and a longer course. The former, a 12-week course intended for teachers with lower educational qualifications, leading to the title of "Qualified Assistant Kindergarten Teacher" (QAKT), was to be run by the Kindergarten Inspectorate. The latter, a 2-year part-time inservice course intended for teachers with more advanced educational qualifications, leading to the title of "Qualified Kindergarten Teacher" (QKT), was started in 1981 at the Grantham College of Education, a regular primary teacher training institute. It was based on the previous 2-year course run by the Kindergarten Inspectorate.

A serious economic recession during the early 1980s resulted in the postponement of many of the above measures, with the exception of the two types of training. However, despite the contribution of these two training programmes, the planned targets of trained staff have not been reached. In 1991 58 percent of kindergarten teachers were still untrained.

This failure to achieve the White Paper targets was noted by the Education Commission (Education Commission, 1986), a body of eminent local business persons and educators appointed by the Hong Kong Government to survey the entire educational system and recommend appropriate educational policy. In the chapter on Preprimary Services of their Second Report the Education Commission proposed the following measures with regard to kindergarten teacher training:

> (a) an increase in intake of both the short-term and extended training courses so that by 1994 an estimated 84 percent of kindergarten teaching staff will be trained, with by far the larger number of them having received the 12-week training;
>
> (b) a deferment both of preservice training and of the establishment of a joint training institute recommended by the 1981 White Paper.

On the other hand, the Education Commission made no mention of the White Paper reference about providing preschool training similar to that for primary school teachers.

Some of these measures of the Education Commission were a step backwards when compared with the 1981 White Paper. For example, the deferment of preservice training and the creation of a separate training institute both limit the output of trained kindergarten teachers. In addition, the deferment of a separate training institute for preschool education reinforces the idea that preprimary education is merely an extension of primary education rather than being an important sector of the educational system in its own right. It also perpetuates the belief that kindergarten teachers and child care workers need a different training, despite the fact that they all work with young children of the same age group and with similar needs for caring early education services.

Since the publication of the Education Commission Second Report the Government has adopted certain measures to try and improve the situation of kindergarten teacher training. On the one hand it has accelerated inservice training, particularly during 1988 and 1989, when approximately 800 and 700 kindergarten teachers were trained (see Table 1)[1]. However, in 1990 and 1991 the figures declined to approximately 500 and 580 respectively which is less than the White Paper's target figure of 600.

Despite this training the kindergarten sector is not meeting the targets for trained teachers set out by the White Paper (see Table 2). In 1986 only 33 percent were trained compared with the target of 45 percent; in 1988 the corresponding figures were 29 percent and 60 percent respectively, and in 1990 they were 42 percent and 75 percent respectively. Given the present situation it is wellnigh impossible for the 90 percent target for 1992 to be achieved.

Table 1: Recent Training of Kindergarten Staff

| | QAKT Training | | QKT Training | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Year | Grantham Coll.Ed. | Ed.Dept. KG Inspec. | Grantham Coll.Ed. Year 1 | Grantham Coll.Ed. Year 2 | Total trained staff |
| 1986 | — | 320 | 231 | 112 | 432 |
| 1987 | — | 321 | 240 | 225 | 546 |
| 1988 | 272 | 320 | 239 | 230 | 822 |
| 1989 | 257 | 227 | 240 | 227 | 711 |
| 1990 | 161 | 114 | 237 | 224 | 499 |
| 1991 | 215 | 143 | 280 | 221 | 579 |

Table 2: Kindergarten Teacher Training

| Year | Total Teachers | Trained Teachers | White Paper Targets | Newly Trained Teachers | Anticipated Trained Teachers (Trained Teachers + Newly Trained Teachers) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1986 | 7,229 | 2,532 (33) | (45) | 432 | 2,964 (41) |
| 1987 | 7,505 | 1,851 (25) | — | 546 | 2,397 (32) |
| 1988 | 7,628 | 2,288 (29) | (60) | 822 | 3,110 (41) |
| 1989 | 7,532 | 2,634 (35) | — | 711 | 3,345 (44) |
| 1990 | 7,138 | 3,024 (42) | (75) | 499 | 3,523 (49) |
| 1991 | 7,429 | 3,122 (42) | — | 579 | 3,701 (50) |
| 1992 | — | — | (90) | — | — |

*Note:* Figures in ( ) represent %

Part of the problem is the high rate of attrition of kindergarten teachers with training. The White Paper targets and calculations are based on an attrition rate of only 10 percent but in every year since 1986 this rate has been exceeded by a significant amount (see Tables 1 and 3). Table 1 shows that even before completion of training there is already an average annual attrition rate between years 1 and 2 of approximately 5 percent. Table 3 shows that subsequent to training there has been additional attrition averaging approximately 19 percent annually over the past five years, ranging from 44 percent in 1987 to only 6 percent in 1988.

Another reason for the shortfall between the

Table 3: Anticipated and Actual Numbers of Trained Teachers

| Year | Anticipated Number | Actual Number | Attrition |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1987 | 2,964 (41) | 1,851 | 1,113 (44) |
| 1988 | 2,397 (32) | 2,288 | 109 ( 6) |
| 1989 | 3,110 (41) | 2,634 | 476 (21) |
| 1990 | 3,345 (44) | 3,024 | 321 (12) |
| 1991 | 3,523 (49) | 3,122 | 401 (13) |
| 1992 | 3,701 (50) | — | — |

*Note:* Figures in ( ) represent %

White Paper targets and the actual number of trained kindergarten teachers is the basis used for the calculations. The White Paper projections of training for kindergarten teachers were based on a kindergarten enrollment covering 4 and 5 year-old children only. The 3 year-olds were expected to attend day nurseries. Subsequently, due to public pressure, the policy of placing 3 year-olds in establishments different from these set up for 4 and 5-year old children was not adopted. Consequently the kindergarten population, which now includes children from 3 to 5 years, is much larger than the figures used for the White Paper calculations. Some adjustments to these figures for kindergarten teacher training were made to take this change of policy into consideration since the 1988 and 1989 intake was more than the projected 600, but these are clearly not sufficient.

Furthermore, even with a population of only 4 and 5 year-old children, the projections of the 1981 White Paper indicate an increasingly large shortfall of trained kindergarten teachers over the years, starting with 860 in 1986 rising to 2,410 in 1992 (p. 26). To remedy the situation the White Paper proposed creating a new training institute in 1984, after which it "should be necessary to accelerate the training programme ... in view of the shortfall indicated.." (p. 12). This new training institute has not yet been set up.

In brief, while the situation of trained kindergarten teachers has improved over the past ten years, progress in this area is still far too slow. When more than half the kindergarten teachers in the territory are untrained the result is that a large proportion of kindergarten children come under the responsibility of adults with inadequate qualifications and preparation for their job. This situation gives cause for concern.

## Child Care Worker Training

No regular training for child care staff existed until the early 1950s although in 1949 the Young Women's Christian Association (YWCA) opened a nursery school and "established a nursery teacher training course for training nursery supervisors and teachers' (South China Morning Post, 1950). In 1950 "20 young women had passed oral and written examinations and were now in the middle of a course of intensive study" which included everything from education and management of children to a study of their common diseases.

In 1958 the Government became directly involved in the specific training of child care staff. In conjunction with the YWCA, the Child Welfare Section of the Social Welfare Department introduced a 5 weeks' part-time "sandwich" course for the training of nursery staff (Hong Kong Government Social Welfare Department [HKSWD], 1958) In 1962 the newly set up Training Unit of the Social Welfare Department took over responsibility for this inservice course, graduating approximately 50 nursery workers each year (HKSWD, 1962).

Until 1976 attendance at these training courses was not compulsory but after the adoption of the Child Care Centres Ordinance (1975) and its related Regulations (1976), it became mandatory for child care workers to receive training within one year of employment. Staff training efforts had to be increased to ensure that all child care workers were able to fulfil this requirement. Two types of courses were run to meet this expanded need for training: a short 5 weeks' course over a period of 4 months run by the Training Section of the Social Welfare Department, and an extended one year full-time Certificate in Child Care course offered by the Hong Kong Polytechnic under the sponsorship of the Social Welfare Department. This latter course started in 1977 and was supplemented in 1979 by a two-year parttime day release course to cater for the majority of practicing child care workers who were unable to enrol in full-time studies.

By 1983 the majority of child care workers had received some basic training. The short term course was then contracted out to the Hong Kong Polytechnic. Subsequently as a result of a policy of upgrading the Hong Kong Polytechnic programmes to the level of a degree-granting institution, the Child Care Certificate course was gradually transferred in 1985-86 to the Lee Wai Lee Technical Institute. At the same time the Hong Kong Polytechnic introduced a 2-year part-time Higher Certificate in Child Care course.

Since 1979 the Lee Wai Lee Technical Institute has already been running its own two-year full-time preservice Certificate in Child Care course for persons with Form 3 qualifications. It now runs three courses for child care workers catering for approximately 90 students: the Certificate in Child Care, (one year full-time and two years part-time for persons with Form 5 qualifications) and a Certificate in Care of Preschool Children (two years full-time for persons with Form 3 qualifications). In 1992 graduates from the certificate in child care course have the option of having their training recognized by the Business and Technology Educational Council of the United Kingdom.

The major problem of the nursery sector now is to improve the level of basic training by increasing the number of child care workers who have followed the certificate course, and by providing additional training for child care workers as they proceed along their careers.

## Combined Training for both Kindergarten Teachers and Child Care Workers

A recent development in early childhood educator training occurred in 1989 with the introduction of a distance learning Certificate in Preprimary Education offered by the Hong Kong Polytechnic. This course is intended for both kindergarten teachers and child care workers, runs for 3 to 5 years, and has an annual intake of approximately 120 persons. The Social Welfare Department recognizes persons with this qualification as registered child care workers and, subject to approval of their teaching skills, the Education Department also recognizes them as qualified kindergarten teachers.

## Training of Early Educators for Children with Special Needs

In the past young handicapped children were either kept out of sight at home or placed in extensions of regular programmes offered by schools specializing in particular types of handicap such as hearing impairments, visual problems, or mental handicap. Only relatively recently has the provision of educational facilities for preschool handicapped children become an issue of concern to the Government. Since 1978 the Social Welfare Department has offered an annual course for approximately 40 child care workers working with disabled children. In 1984 a Government working party adopted a report which emphasized the specific educational needs of young handicapped children from birth to 6 years. This resulted in the introduction, in 1985, of a 6-months part-time training course run by the Hong Kong Polytechnic for early educators working in preschool centres for children with special needs. In 1987 this course was expanded to one academic year with an intake of 40 students.

## Training of Early Childhood Educator Trainers

The trainers of early childhood educators come from a variety of backgrounds. Kindergarten teacher trainers are generally persons who have been trained in a College of Education or Primary Teacher Training Institute and have had some teaching experience at the primary level. Some have followed additional courses overseas in child development or early childhood education. Others have graduated in early childhood education or related fields from universities or colleges abroad. Trainers in the child care sector have more or less similar qualifications to those in the kindergarten sector, but usually have not had primary level teaching experience. In recent years trainers have been upgrading their qualifications and more and more of them have completed advanced courses in early childhood education, such as the Master's level qualification. For example the Faculty of Education of the University of Hong Kong offers from time to time a part-time M.Ed. course in Early Childhood Education which provides advanced training for key personnel working in the field of early childhood education in Hong Kong. Graduates of this course have been absorbed into the training sectors.

## Discussion

The discrepancy between training in the kindergarten and child care sectors can be explained by a number of reasons. Differences in legislation pertaining to training between the two sectors is a major cause. The 1975-76 adoption of the Child Care Centres Ordinance and Regulations called for the training for all child care workers within one year of entering service. The combined efforts of the Training Section of the Social Welfare Department and the Hong Kong Polytechnic ensured that by 1983 the majority of child care workers were able to comply with this legislation. Since the majority of workers were trained between 1975 and 1983 it is now a relatively easy task to offer training for the comparatively small number of incoming child care workers each year. For instance in 1989 some 237 incoming workers were trained, in 1990 the figure was 210 and in 1991 it was 300 persons. In addition to these training efforts, the child care sector has a recognized salary scale patterned after that of other sectors of the Social Welfare Department, which provides regular salary increments for training and experience. This is an added incentive to follow training and to remain in the field.

The problems in the kindergarten sector are more difficult to solve. Not only are there more kindergarten teachers to be trained, but legislation on the training of kindergarten teachers has not in the past been as stringent as for child care workers. Despite the White Paper targets, kindergarten teachers are not required to be trained. As a result some 4,287 kindergarten teachers are still not trained. Since the introduction of the new training programmes in 1981 the percentage of untrained kindergarten teachers has decreased from 86 percent in 1981 to 58 percent in 1991. However, the pace of training is slow. At the present rate, and unless a blister programme for kindergarten teachers is adopted similar to that undertaken by the Social Welfare Department for child care workers in the 1970s or by the Education Department for secondary teachers in the 1980s, a large number of kindergarten teachers will continue to be unqualified for their jobs well into the 21st century.

One measure adopted by the Government to try and stem the loss of trained kindergarten teachers was to introduce a recommended salary scale for kindergarten staff. In 1990 the Education Department circulated a salary scale which specified that the salary for an untrained person should be $3,570, that for QAKTs should range from $3,725 to $6,970, and that for QKTs should range from $6,560 to $9,970. However, this salary scale is not binding on kindergarten operators. Some operators may even prefer to employ untrained, or lesser trained (QAKT) persons as teachers as a means of reducing costs.

It seems surprising that so many parents accept that untrained staff take responsibility for their young children. This may be due to the lack of recognition of the professional status of a preschool teacher. Many people still equate kindergarten teaching with babysitting, childminding, or even mothering, for which training is not felt to be necessary. This belief may be the legacy of the pre-war and early post-war years when many preschool children in Hong Kong were cared for at home or in family day care by persons with no training. Parents may not be fully aware of the differences between caring for one or several children in an informal home setting and educating a large group of children in a more formal school setting. They may also not be aware that the single most important factor contributing to a high quality early childhood education programme is staff training and qualifications (Logue et al., 1986). Another reason why parents do not complain about early childhood educator training may be that in Hong Kong even in secondary schools, not all teachers are trained. Parents may reason that if secondary pupils, whose education seems to be far more complex and demanding than that of young children, can be taught by untrained teachers, why not preschool children? Whatever the reason there has in the past been little parental pressure for the improvement of early childhood educator training.

The situation is changing and improvements are occurring slowly. Early childhood professionals, parents and the public at large are increasingly concerned about early education and the need for adequate preparation of early childhood educators. The important question now is what should be done to ensure that improvements in early educator training will benefit the present generation of young children, rather than those who will go to preschool twenty years hence.

## Note

[1] Sources of information for Tables 1-3 are the Education Department Annual Summaries 1985-1986 to 1990-1991, and personal communications from the Grantham College of Education, Kindergarten Section, and the Education Department, Kindergarten Inspectorate.

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# Heredity and Environment: Implications for Teaching

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It has been recognized by neurologists and psychologists that a person inherits the characteristics of his parents through the genes in the chromosomes of the cells, and one of these characteristics is intelligence. It is also believed that the genes responsible for intelligence can only function properly with the right kind of constituents and in the right kind of genetical environment, i.e., the presence of the neighbouring genes. Hence, the right kind of nutrition needs to be supplied to the cells all the time. On the other hand, educational, social, and psychological stimulation is essential for the maximum development of intelligence. The role of the teachers is to provide this important external environment for the pupils, though they can do very little to improve the inborn potential of the pupils. It is very encouraging to note that the Hong Kong Government has acknowledged the individual differences of the pupils and the tasks of the teachers to render differential treatment to these pupils to bring out their very best.

**遺傳與環境對教學的啓示**

腦科專家與心理學家都已承認人類的特徵是由父母經細胞內染色體的遺傳因子而遺傳得來的，而其中一個特徵便是智慧。他們亦相信負責智慧的遺傳因子只能在有正確的組成物及在正確的遺傳因子的環境下（即週遭有適宜的遺傳因子），才能發揮其適當功用。故此細胞長時要有正確的養料供應。在其他方面，教育、社會及心理刺激是智慧達到最高發展的要素。教師的主要任務是供應這個重要外在環境予學童，雖然他們對學童的天賦潛質難有很大的改進。我們感到鼓舞的是，香港政府已認同學童的個別差異及教師的工作是給予個別學童不同的處理，以引出他最好的智能。

## Introduction

The "nature and nurture" or "heredity and environment" issues in connection with the concept of I.Q. have been discussed by various leading psychologists in the world, notably Vernon (1961, 1969, 1979) in Canada, Eysenck (1979) in England, and Jensen (1981) in U.S.A., and also locally examined by Chan (1970, 1974, 1975, 1980). The various issues related to Chinese intelligence have also been studied by Chan and Vernon (1988), Chan, Eysenck, and Lynn (1991), and Chan (1991). It has been universally recognised that in spite of the importance of the inborn qualities of the pupils, the influence of the surrounding environment cannot be overlooked. It cannot be over-emphasized that the inherited genes cannot function properly by themselves and have to interact with the internal genetical and external educational, psychological, social, and physical environments. It is important that teachers teach all children regardless of their inborn abilities (有教無類) by providing them with an appropriate environment.

The present paper attempts to summarise the salient points for the easy reference of the practising teachers, who are in direct contact with the pupils in the school situation. Also, the optimum use of pupils' hereditary characteristics in the interaction with the major environments, namely, the home, school, and society is greatly encouraged for the development of the pupils' maximum potentials. It is hoped that through this paper, teachers' awareness of the growth and development processes of the children's intellectual process can be heightened.

## The Nature of Intelligence

The term intelligence has become an important concept in education and psychology as well as in popular usage among teachers, parents, and pupils. It should be pointed out that though psychologists have been measuring intelligence with some success, they are still unable to agree completely regarding its nature. It is most unlikely that non-specialists such as classroom teachers, ordinary parents, and the pupils would understand fully the definitions of intelligence coined by various psychologists who have spent their lifetime on this aspect of knowledge. However, even if there is no universal acceptance as to the nature of intelligence, it is a very useful and fundamental concept in education, and all teachers should have a general grasp of what intelligence is and know how to apply this information to the teaching situation.

It is clear that intelligence cannot be observed directly, but can only be estimated through its manifestations in various activities, and only in this aspect can it be measured with some success. Nonetheless, this does not limit its use. It would appear that it is more fruitful to consider intelligence in terms of what it does rather than what it is, especially in the practical school environment. The development of intelligence has been treated by various authors, the more recent ones being Anderson (1992) and Brody (1992).

Different psychologists have approached the problem of intelligence and see what the present position of intelligence is. The many definitions of intelligence given by psychologists can be suitably grouped into three main categories, namely, biological, psychological, and operational, but there is much overlapping of these arbitrary classes.

The biological viewpoint takes intelligence as an ability to modify behaviour to suit changing environmental conditions, and to profit by experience. This seems most useful in accounting for animal behaviour, but difficult to apply to man because of his complex social development, and his complicated intervening thought processes which come between the stimulus and the response. Though some biologists pointed out that, in the course of evolution, the increasing size and complexity of the higher brain centres had been accompanied by increasing flexibility and complexity of behaviour, Vernon (1960) emphasized that within the human species itself there is no connection whatever between intelligence and the size of the brain, or the number of neurones, or any other physiological characteristics that have been studied so far except perhaps in pathological cases. Butcher (1968) also considered that the biological approach to intelligence is not of practical value in the study of individual differences within a given culture, since modern civilisation has already provided a stable environment within which trends of biological adaptation are hard to discern.

The psychological viewpoint has less concern for animal behaviour but concentrates on what cognitive abilities a man has; it confines intelligence mainly to thinking. Therefore, narrower definitions of intelligence such as "number of associations of ideas the mind can make", "capacity to carry out abstract thinking", "capacity of working out relationships between things", "innate general cognitive ability", etc. have been proposed. It seems that there is a fair agreement among these definitions though they do not precisely define what behaviours or acts are or are not intelligent. On the other hand, the operational viewpoint defines intelligence in terms of concrete operations such as scores on mental tests. To explain the concept of intelligence, the two-factor theory (one general factor responsible for all mental activities, and a number of specific factors each responsible for a particular mental activity), the hierarchical factor theory (one general factor responsible for all mental activities, and a number of group factors each responsible for a particular group of mental activities), and the multiple-factor theory (no one general factor, but a number of separate factors each responsible for a single mental activity) have been put forward by various psychologists in England and U.S.A.

Vernon (1961) stressed that the hierarchical theory is superior to the multiple-factor theory, but he pointed out that a compromise between these two theories is not impossible. He further noted that small group factors can be isolated fairly readily in many types of specialized cognitive tests, but no intellectual faculties beyond "g" (a general or common factor or intelligence required by all mental activities) and "v:ed" (verbal-educational group factor required by academic activities) have yet been established as having much educational or vocational importance, though spatial and number group factors might play some part in certain school subjects such as science and technical subjects. This certainly has some important bearings on educational selection and guidance. A pupil may score well at a test through high "g", another might get the same score by virtue of some group factor, yet another through specific ability at that particular test. Also, academic ability (v:ed factor) and practical ability (k:m factor) are not inversely correlated; in fact the majority of children who are superior educationally are also above average in mechanical ability, because of the common influence of the general factor "g".

## The Nurture of Intelligence

A large body of research has been done to investigate the relative effects of heredity and environment on intelligence, and the work of Piaget is of particular importance in this connection. Piaget observed children at various stages of development. He posed them with various problems and noted how they were solved by children. His studies concentrate much on the way in which children see their environment and the levels of understanding at different stages. Hunt (1961) described Piaget's original work in his classical book *Intelligence and Experience*, and, teachers are encouraged to read this book for a greater depth of treatment of language development alongside other aspects of growth as well as the formation of precepts and concepts. Piaget claimed that there are two fundamental processes employed by children in the development of their thinking, namely, "assimilation" and "accommodation". The former is considered to be the means by which children absorb and incorporate new experiences into what has already been established; and the latter is regarded to be the way by which what has been established is further modified in the light of more and new experience. He suggested that "assimilation" and "accommodation" tend to reach a state of equilibrium, in which case there is "adaptation", the higher forms of which result in intelligent activities.

To Piaget, intellectual adaptation is the progressive differentiation and integration of inborn reflex mechanisms under the impact of experience. The differentiation of inborn reflex structures and their functions give rise to the mental operations by which children conceive of objects, space, time, and causality, and of the logical relationships which constitute the basis of scientific thought. He considered that intellectual operations are acquired by interaction between organism and environment in a lawful "sequence". Piaget's main concern is with elucidating this "sequence", and not with establishing exact age norms for its stages. Suffice it to say here that Piaget's "assimilation-accommodation" model explains very well the interaction of intellect and environment in the process of thought development.

Also, intelligence has been distinguished into "Intelligence A", "Intellegience B", and "Intelligence C" by various psychologists. "Intelligence A" refers to the inborn, innate, genetic potentiality, neither observable nor measurable. "Intelligence B" is the present mental efficiency resulting from interaction with the environment. This is similar to the geneticist's familiar distinction between the genotype and the phenotype. The genotype is the genetic equipment of the individual, and the phenotype depends on the interaction of the genes with the prenatal (in the womb of the mother) and postnatal (in the external world of home, school, and society) environments (nutritional, educational, social, and psychological). Therefore, it is not true that a certain gene can produce a particular trait such as intelligence; the trait only exists in so far as a suitable environment favours its development. Thus, "Intelligence B" is a product of nature and nurture. Further, the working of a particular gene is affected by the existence of the neighbouring genes. Hence, it is important to have the appropriate gene environment for a certain gene to exhibit its effect. It has been generally agreed that available intelligence tests are imperfect instruments for measuring "Intelligence B", and the term "Intelligence C" is the aspect of "Intelligence B" measurable by intelligence tests, which represent only a sample of all cognitive abilities included in "Intelligence B".

It has been noted that intelligence must be a complex characteristic under the control of many genes. Plomin (1988) reviewed behavioural genetic theory and research as it relates to intelligence. The duel theme of his review is that behavioural genetic research points to significant and substantial genetic influence on individual differences in general and specific cognitive abilities and, at the same time, indicates significant and substantial environmental influence. Behavioural genetic theory and research will contribute to our understanding of environmental influence to a greater extent than it will advance our knowledge of heredity. Plomin continued to say that genetic differences among individuals can lead to phenotypic individual differences. To the extent that heredity is important, the expected phenotypic similarity among relatives is a function of their genetic similarity. Environmental differences among individuals can also lead to phenotypic individual differences. Both genetic and environmental factors can therefore create change as well as continuity during development.

It is now apparent that intelligence can develop to optimum functioning only if the person has adequate cultural stimulation. This theoretical picture has been supported by many research findings, and there are good grounds for believing that cultural background plays an important role in the ability to succeed at intelligence tests giving the common I.Q. score. It has also been found that the most important single facor in the performance on 'g' and verbal tests is the cultural level of the home, parental education and encouragement, reading facilities and probably the speech background. It has been pointed out by leading psychologists that ability depends not only on the genes and the cultural environment, but on physiological conditions before birth, on adequate proteins and vitamins in the diets particularly from about -3 to +6 months, not to speak of anoxia or physical damage at birth, and that all these undoubtedly affect the building up of healthy brain tissues and the capacity for further dvelopment. There is also much evidence that gestational stress may be brought about in the mother by malnutrition or exposure to certain diseases, by heavy manual labour, or by anxiety. Furthermore, intelligence is not static or fixed for life, even though retests over short periods generally show high reliabilities. It should be noted that there are late developers, and it is not uncommon that pupils suddenly become very bright and achieve much better than their contemporaries though appearing not very promising at the earlier stages of schooling. This certainly has a great educational implication, and teachers should not label certain pupils as hopeless cases too soon. The potentials of certain pupils just need a particular environment for them to develop, and teachers should provide a stimulating and conducive environment and an opportune moment for these pupils to turn bright or gifted.

Some authorities claim that heredity accounts for about 75-80% of the variance in intelligence test scores, environment about 20-25%, but most psychologists consider that this is not realistic because proportions differ according to environmental variance. Some maintain that any statement that x% is due to genetic factors and y% due to environment ones must be treated with reservation. It becomes clear now that it is not the proportions but the interaction (leading to the continuous transformation of a complex pattern in which heredity and environmental elements are no longer distinguishable) that is important. Even within one culture, environmental conditions such as standards of affluence and nutrition, child-rearing practices and availability of educational opportunities are all changing quite rapidly, often with demonstrable effect on measured intelligence. It can therefore be safely said that intelligence is not an unchangeable entity and its development is not entirely predetermined by genes since it depends considerably upon the degree of intellectual stimulation available. In other words, the genes determine the potentiality, but its realization is greatly dependent on the environment. This certainly has a very important implication for the teachers who should provide the right kind of stimulation for the intellectual development of the pupils under their care.

## The Home Environment

Unboubtedly, besides school, home is the most important environment where learning by children and teaching by parents take place, especially at the early stages of the children's life. It is therefore appropriate to examine the intellectual issues under the heading of home environment. On the other hand, societal influence on the children's learning is the least among the three basic external environments to which the children are exposed since birth, and hence it is not discussed in this paper.

Most research (cf. Brody (1992)) points out that it is possible that the parents of poor-performing children are also genetically inferior, and therefore it should not be argued that poor home environment as such would cause the observed deficiencies. It may be agreed that the "in toto" hereditary explanation is unlikely, but its possible effect should continue to be recognized. On the other hand, the children in the less favoured homes do not develop intellectually at the same rates as children in more favoured homes. It has also been consistently found that children from families of higher socio-economic status tend to do better in all tests of ability than children of lower status. Some psychologists report that the following aspects seem to affect secondary school performance appreciably: availability of music, books, newspapers, magazines, journals, radio, television and cassette recorder programmes, personal computers, pictures, ballet and concert going, and overseas vacation tours. Other studies reveal that poverty, population density, family size, poor health and inadequate general knowledge are the aspects of low social class which are associated with backwardness in school. This strongly suggests that teachers should have a good knowledge of the family background of the pupils, and complement the home conditions with school facilities accordingly. However, it should be pointed out that better class homes certainly provide not only external environmental advantages to the children but also the internal genetical superiority. Generally speaking, the prominent academics like the professors or the senior business executives like the general managers may be considered most often to be more intelligent parents than the unskilled labourers, so that part of the inferiority of the latter's children may be thought to be genetic in character.

Various studies such as Plomin's (1988) have shown that the relationship between intelligence and home environment factors is very high, especially in view of the fact that there is early pressure on the child to verbalize his feelings and abstract ideas in the higher income families. It can be concluded that good socio-economic background favours intellectual development.

Other aspects of environmental influence have also been investigated from time to time with significant results. The following findings appear interesting and have important bearings on the home environment of children in Hong Kong. The eldest children with one or two siblings tend to do better in secondary schools. The size of family in itself may be a causal factor in poor mental development, just as poor language stimulus in the home has been shown to be since they both correlate with low intelligence. Generally, small families with two or three siblings are more advantageous.

Research evidence has confirmed that socio-economic level and linguistic backgorund are considerably associated with "g" and with eduational and verbal performance, but the cultural stimulus in the home gives an even higher correlation with the "g" factor. The most important single factor in children's performance on "g" and verbal tests seem to be the cultural level of the home, parental education and encouragement, reading facilities and probably the speech background. The next most important factor in the home situation is the purposefulness and rationality of the home atmosphere. Economic level as such is only subsidiary. The child takes the parents as his model because they have qualities the child lacks; he wants to become like them. The parents are the first adults in contact with the child, and hence they play an important role in being the child's first models with whom he identifies.

Parental precepts and examples produce conditioning long before conscious teaching in schools can reach the child. Parental acceptance and affection, or the opposite, determine the psychological atmosphere surrounding the child. The child from a democratic home is more active, more socially outgoing, and higher in intellectual curiosity, originality, creativity, and constructiveness. The democratic home atmosphere is more conducive to intellectual growth than other types of home control. A child's first social learning occurs at home, and his earliest experiences with his family, particularly with his mother, are critical in determining his attitude toward, and his expectations of, other individuals. The early mother-child relationships influence not only a child's immediate behaviour, but also his subsequent, long-term adjustment, particularly at the adolescent satge.

Strong motivation to learn and to perform well in school is fostered by parental encouragement of competence and exploration early in life. Parental motivation has been found to be significantly related to the child's aspiration level — children with high self-esteem tend to have parents who are also high in self-esteem. Personal insecurities and psychological problems arising from disturbed family relationships also play a significant role in the delinquent's background. Juvenile delinquency and suicidal tendency have been considered to be an escape from an emotional situation which is too much for the child, such as dmoestic disharmony, parental ill health, lack of feeling of security, and emotional estrangement from parents. Inadequate affection in the home and differences between the parents concerning the social, emotional, and moral development of their children are the conditions most likely to lead to delinquency.

It can be summed up that psycholoical environment in the home is comparatively more important than the physical monetary environment, and the psychological environment can be integrated into a single overall variable, which is the parent-child interaction, separating into three large components, namely, parental treatment (concerned or restricted), parental teaching (democratic or demanding), and parental discipline (rational or autocratic). Treatment influences affective or emotional development of the child, teaching affects the cognitive or knowledge development of the child, whereas discipline connects with the social or behavioural development of the child.

It becomes very clear that the parental role in the child's growth of intelligence and other areas is vital. Unfortunately, not all parents function properly, as many parents have neither the knowledge nor the training for good parenting. The responsibility therefore rests with the teachers who should supplement the duties of the parents and fill the gap where the parents miss out. In order to help the pupils more effectively, teachers should understand their family background by conducting home visits and parents' day, and interviewing parents during school hours or meeting parents through the parent-teacher associations, as and when necessary.

## Conclusion

The issues of heredity and environment of pupils have now been discussed, and it seems rather clear now that high heredity does not imply fixity of intelligence, as with novel changes in environment, the population value of the phenotype can change. Also, high heredity does not imply that teaching and learning are unimportant, though the effects of available educational and child-rearing environments are limited to pupil potentials. It is therefore necessary to search for novel approaches or different techniques that could be adapted to children with different gene patterns.

Further, for the maximum development of intelligence, the interaction of heredity and environment is essential. To illustrate, take the development of a seed to a seedling. If a good seed does not have water, air, and warmth, it cannot germinate; if the seed is a bad one, it also cannot germinate though the environment is favourable. On the other hand, if the seed is good and the conditions are conducive, it will grow to a healthy seedling; if the seed is bad and the environments are prohibitive, it will not be able to grow but die. The good seed resembles a gifted or talented child and the bad seed likens a handicapped or retarded child, and the teacher is to provide the necessary ingredients to develop both these kinds of children to their maximum potentials as some of the parents may not be adequately equipped to carry out this function at home, and that is the mission of the schools and the teachers therein.

## A Final Note

It is most gratifying to note that in the Address by the Governor of Hong Kong at the Legislative Council on 7 October 1992, *Our Next Five Years* (The Agenda For Hong Kong), the individual differences of the children are duly acknowledged, and no doubt this is very encourgaging to teachers and all concerned educators. "The single most important step must be to make it possible for our hard-pressed teachers to pay more attention to the needs of the individual child. We all know that, whatever else they are, children are first and foremost individuals. They do not all learn at the same speed. Some are better at reading than maths. Some are better at day-dreaming than either. Some are budding Einsteins from their first day in the classroom. our education system must bring out the very best in *all* of them. To do that, teachers — with better training and more resources — must have the time to spur on the able and to encourage the less able. The brightest children must be free to excel; the less bright must be given every opportunity and support." According to the above quotation from the Governor's Address, the education policy for Hong Kong in the next five years is certainly set on the right track. Let us hope that this policy will eventually materialise in the interests of both the teachers and the pupils.

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# Contextual Prerequisites for Understanding: An Investigation of Comprehension and Recall

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The present study investigated the importance of relevant contextual knowledge in assisting comprehension of prose passages. It was hypothesized that the presentation of an appropriate contextual referent before a target passage without the contextual referent information was read would result in better recall than when the presentation of the same was done after the reading, or when the contextual referent was only partially supplied or not at all. 40 Form 2 subjects in the upper quartile of the first-term English examination results rated the "comprehensibility" of a passage and performed a recognition task after reading the passage. The "context-before" group rated the comprehensibility of passages higher and gained higher mean recall scores than the other three groups' comprehension.

### 理解力的語境先決條件：一個閱讀理解與憶述的調查

本研究調查適切的語境知識對幫助理解文章的重要性。本文假設閱讀一篇缺乏相關語境的文章之前提供一正確語境圖畫，較諸之後提供或只提供部份和沒有提供語境的情況下對憶述和理解的影響較佳。受試者爲40個上學期期考英文成績最好的四份一中二學生。閱讀後分別評估對文章之理解程度和進行一重認測驗。結果顯示之前獲提供語境者，其理解程度和憶述能力都較其他三組爲高。

## Introduction

The meaning of a sentence or a picture can be represented as a network of propositions. When we hear a story or read a passage for comprehension, meaning-based representations are very important. According to Anderson (1990), memory for meaning is longer-lasting than memory for physical details. In addition, the retention of the meaning of a message appears to be a normal part of the comprehension process (Wanner, in Anderson, 1990).

Adams and Collins (1979) and Anderson (1978) explain the importance of schemas (previously acquired knowledge structures) that enables us to encode properties which are typical of instances of general categories and omit properties which are not typical of the categories. According to Gagne (1985), schemas lead us to expect certain information, guide retrieval, help in recognition of a new instance of a concept or in drawing an obvious inference. Thus, it is very important to activate schemas during encoding, retrieval and recall.

Many studies have shown how background or prior knowledge facilitates learning. For instance, Lipson (1983) found that children from both Jewish and Catholic backgrounds better comprehended stories relevant to their own background. Taylor and Taylor (1990) suggested that drawing on prior knowledge such as giving a title to a passage would aid the comprehension and memory of a passage. Stahl et al. (1989) showed that preteaching or giving students advance relevant information about an unfamiliar topic appeared to facilitate comprehension.

Bransford and Johnson (1972) tested the effects of contextual information on comprehension and memory in their study. They found that subjects who were given pictures which provided concrete referents, additional information and relevant knowledge performed better than subjects in a no-context group. Thus for passages presented in isolation with insufficient information and lacking referents of many of the phrases and words, it is very difficult to extract the meaning-based knowledge representation directly from the passage.

The present study is an initial attempt to adapt the study of Bransford and Johnson (1972) for use with EL2 students in Hong Kong modifying both the passage and the recall techniques. Unlike Bransford and Johnson, whose main purpose was to test L1 high school students who volunteered to participate in the experiment in order to check the joint function of input information and prior knowledge, the present study was redesigned to test EL2 secondary school students in junior forms whose ability to read English comprehension was not so high. The authors sought to find out whether contextual information and prior knowledge would help the students to extract the meaning from the passage and enhance recall. A group of Form 2 students were used as the subjects. The passages used were provided with or without contextual information.

## Method

### *Subjects*

In this pilot study with junior form students, the subjects were 40 Form 2 (eighth-grade) students from different classes in an Anglo-Chinese Secondary school. They were placed in the upper quartile of the first examination in English, and were randomly assigned to the four groups to give 10 subjects in each group. All the students chosen had a good ability to comprehend the utterance of English words and sentences in passages designed for Form 2 level.

### *Materials*

The original passage used by Brandsford and Johnson (1972) was modified to suit the subjects at Form 2 level. The sentences followed rules of normal English construction and the vocabulary items were used in non-metaphorical ways. The order and the content of presentation were the same as the original passage, which did not simply describe the picture, but contained information about specific events that could happen given the picture as a conceptual and prior knowledge base for understanding the comprehension passage. The original passage is shown in Appendix 1. The modified passage is as follows:

> If the balloons popped, the sound would not be able to carry, since everything would be too far away from the correct floor. A closed window would also prevent the sound from carrying. A break in the middle of the wire would also cause problems. Of course, he could shout, but his voice was not loud enough to carry that far. He wished his voice could be heard clearly. However, it would be the best with face to face contact.

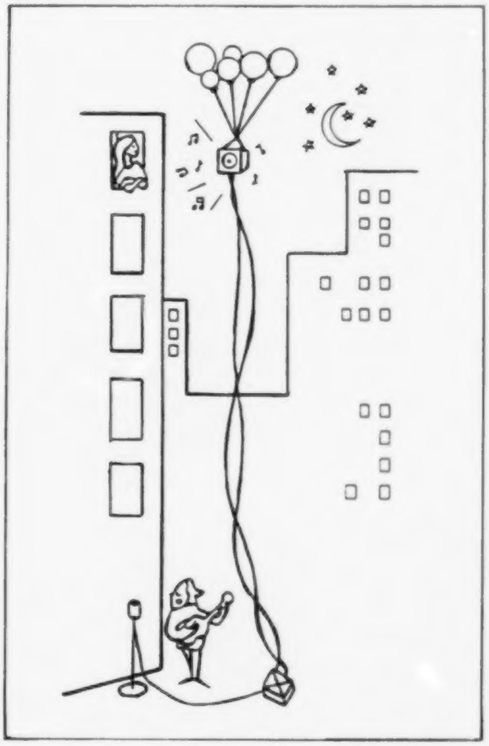

Figure 1 Appropriate context picture for the "context-before" and "context-after" groups

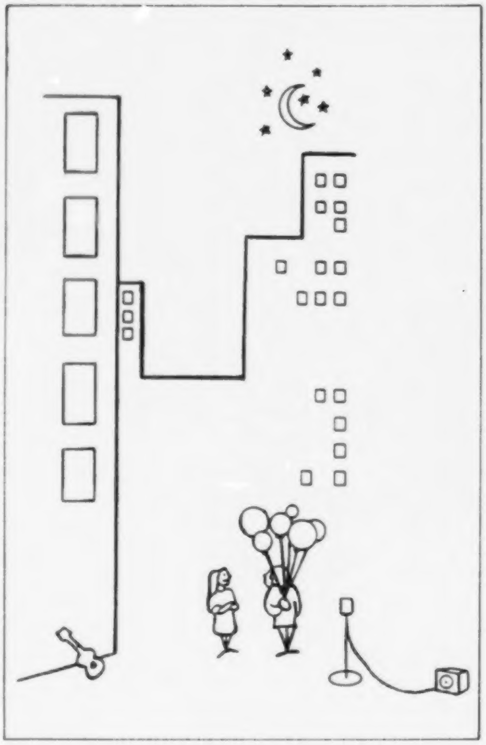

Figure 2 Partial context picture for the "partial-context" group

### *Rating scale*

A 7-point scale (in which 7 indicated "highly comprehensible" and 1 indicated "highly incomprehensible") was prepared to be used of rating by the subjects after reading the modified passage.

### *Recall recognition test*

In Bransford's study, the subjects were asked to recall the passage as accurately as they could and write down as many ideas as possible after they had heard the taped-recorded passage. But EL2 Form 2 students might not be able to perform such writing tasks easily. A better design for testing the meaning of text comprehension was introduced.

A recall recognition test using the sentence verification technique (SVT) was used. This technique was originally introduced by Royer, Hastings and Hook (1979) to help teachers develop their own tests to assess comprehension of current classroom material. A number of studies have suggested that standardised multiple choice tests are inadequate measures of text comprehension (e.g., Royer et al.,1987), and the SVT has been used successfully with narrative passages with readability ranges from third to seventh grade and college level (Royer,1987).

The reliability of the test measured in various studies ranges from .80 to .98. Its validity is good at testing the level of difficulty of the materials, the formal characteristics of text, the knowledge base of the subjects and the meaning of the text.

If readers have remembered the meaning of a test, they should be able to judge that the original and paraphrased sentences have the same meaning, and they should be able to reject meaning change and distractor test sentences. It is suggested that a test based on a twelve sentence passage would consist of three original sentences, three paraphrases, three with meaning changes, and three distractor sentences, each representing a different passage sentence. Since the passage in this study is short with six sentences only, three sentences would be asked twice indirectly for checking chances of guessing. One scriptally implicit sentence would test the contextual prerequisites for understanding of the passage. The recognition test is shown in Appendix 2. It consists of ten questions as follows:

(a) 3 original item type: sentences copied from the passage;

(b) 3 paraphrased item type: original words replaced with others having the same meaning as those in the passage;

(c) 3 meaning change item type: making the meaning distinctly different to the original sentences; and

(d) 1 scriptally implicit sentence that should be inferred on the basis of the appropriate context picture.

The maximum score is 10, with 1 mark given for each fully correct answer.

## Hypothesis

The subjects given an appropriate context picture prior to reading the passage would rate the passage more highly comprehensible and get higher recall scores in a recognition test than subjects given either (a) the appropriate context picture after reading the passage, (b) a partial-context picture before the passage, or (c) no context picture.

## Procedure

The 40 subjects were randomly divided into four groups of 10. Each group was located in a different classroom. All subjects were told that they were going to read a passage and were asked to attempt to comprehend and remember it. They were informed that they would later be asked to recall the passage as accurately as they could.

The first group (the "context before" group) first saw the picture for 30 seconds (the same amount of time was allowed in Bransford and Johnson's study in 1972) and then read the passage for 3 minutes to make sure that all the subjects read the passage thoroughly.

The second group (the "context after" group) had the appropriate context picture for 30 seconds but only after reading the passage for 3 minutes.

The third group (the "partial context before" group) inspected the partial context picture for 30 seconds before reading the passage.

The fourth group received no picture (the "no context" group) but read the passage for 3 minutes and had 30 extra seconds for reading to compensate for the time the other groups had for inspecting the pictures.

After all the groups had finished reading the passage, they were asked to rate the passage on the 7-point comprehension scale and then they were asked to choose the sentences with the same meaning as the sentences in the passage (see Appendix 3) without referring to the passage.

## Results

The findings of the present study are summarized in Table 1. The reliability coefficient of the present recall recognition test is .62. $F = 9.67 < .05$. A one way ANOVA applied to the data in the table showed significant differences among the context groups: $F(3,36) = 37.36, p < .05$ and comprehension ratings: $F(3,36) = 14.94 < .05$.

A multiple comparsion test by Scheffe's method further indicated that the differences in mean scores for both comprehensibility ratings and recognition between the "context-before" group, and the "context-after" group, the "partial-context" group and "no-context" group are significant at the .05 level.

Table 1: Mean Comprehensibility Ratings and Recognition Scores for the balloon passage

| | Context before | Context after | Partial Context | No Context |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Comprehensibility | 5.5 | 4.5 | 4.3 | 2.5 |
| Recognition | 7.6 | 4.3 | 3.2 | 2.8 |

From Table 1, the present study showed that the "no context" group rated the passage as almost incomprehensible and got a low mean recall score. In the study the prerequisite knowledge for comprehending the passage was in the form of a picture that provided information about the context underlying the passage. The passage did not simply describe the picture, but described various events that could happen given the context as a conceptual base. Therefore, when the subjects did not have the appropriate contextual knowledge, they found the passage difficult to comprehend.

The "context-before" group received the picture before reading rated comprehensibility higher and the mean recognition score was significantly higher than those of the other three groups. This showed that the knowledge of the appropriate contextual referent helped comprehension.

The "context-after" group showed similar ratings of comprehensibility to those of the "partial-context" group but got a higher mean score in the recognition test. This might indicate that knowledge of the appropriate contextual referent still worked after reading the passage.

The probable reason for the lower scores of the "no-context" group is that it was difficult for subjects to grasp the relevance of the information in the passage. For example, (a) "If the balloons popped, the sound would not be able to carry, since everything would be too far away from the correct floor." How does "the balloons" relate to "the sound"? What is the "correct floor" that the sound could not reach? (b) "A break in the middle of the wire would also cause problems." What are the "problems" with the "wire"? (c) "He wished his voice could be heard clearly." How did "the voice" relate to all the other things? Without appropriate additional information, it is difficult to determine the referents of many of the phrases and words.

However, when one reads the passage in the context of the appropriate picture (Figure 1), the theme of the passage is clearly recognizable. For instance, the sound from the loud speaker and the process of communication between the man and the girl could be identified in the picture. The vocabulary items like "wire" and "voice" could be understood easily. The context helped the subjects in the "context before" group to recognize the connection between the picture and the passage so that their performance in the recall recognition test was better than those in the "partial context" group and the "no context" group.

## Discussion

As mentioned by Roger (1987), comprehension can be viewed as a "constructive" process, one that entails interaction between the context, the linguistic message, and the knowledge base of the listener or reader. When we listen or read, we preserve the meaning of the passage but not the precise words of a message. We not only decode the words and sentences, but we elaborate spatial implications, infer probable consequences and create some semantic content that allows us to understand.

With an appropriate context referent, like the picture in this study which provided concrete referents for the "context before" subjects, the comprehension process and recall level can be assessed. Also, the subjects who received the "context before" reading passage were more effective than those in all of the other groups. The context may have also served as prior knowledge that activated the working memory and help the selection process in recall.

Schwanenflugel et al. (1989) found that his subjects were significantly faster at making judgements about abstract words in a meaningful context than when they appeared in a non-meaningful context. This context-availability view predicts that comprehension will be relatively slow when readers have difficulty retrieving relevant prior knowledge. This is the case for the "no context" group in the present study. The subjects had great difficulty interpreting the situation and establishing the relationships between the isolated sentences. Thus, their prior knowledge could not be easily activated to help in achieving an appropriate interpretation.

The fact that the "partial context" group scored higher in the recall test than the "no context" group may be due to the use of imagery with the picture in Figure 2. Although the objects in this picture were rearranged, the picture contained all the objects presented in the appropriate picture (Figure 1). These objects provided an opportunity for the subjects to form images as a strategy for later recall of the passage. These results would tend to confirm the findings by Peters and Levin (1986) who found it useful to teach students to use an imagery strategy for increasing later recall of passages. However, the recognition scores were not high in the present study, suggesting that imagery strategies may not have been used effectively. Also, Schwanenflugel et al. (1989) found that concrete words (for enhancing imagery) were not always processed more easily when they appeared in a supportive sentence context.

Nevertheless, the results of the present study give support to Bransford and Johnson's (1972) studies at least in two ways:

(a) playing an active role, readers may make assumptions to link sentences together to form coherent events or activate knowledge to fill in the gaps in passages;

(b) in order to be comprehended in a satisfactory manner, the text should be related to the readers' background knowledge.

In the present study, appropriate contextual referents were found to be crucial in comprehension. When the subjects (the "context before" group) activated background knowledge in comprehending the passage, they not only found the passage easier to understand, but they also remembered it better. If people, as the "no context" group in this study did, lack the knowledge necessary to make appropriate assumptions or inferences, they will find the reading materials arbitrary, difficult to understand or remember.

Teachers therefore shoul. be careful in choosing or designing reading materials for students. Our reading courses should not be text-oriented, with minimal emphasis on the contribution of the reader. They should enable their students, through practical and relevant learning activities to utilize familar concepts and general knowledge in achieving comprehension.

To conclude, the main purpose of the present study was to check Form 2 subjects'recall and comprehensibility ratings of a passage under "before-", "after-", "partial-" or "without context" conditions. The passage was found to be more comprehensible when concrete contextual information and prior knowledge were available. The findings suggest that teachers need to choose comprehension materials with appropriate contextual information and be aware of their students' prior knowledge before teaching comprehension.

Further studies could also be carried out to test the generalizability of the present findings to other groups of EL2 stud ents including those of different language ability.

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## Appendix 1

If the balloons popped, the sound would not be able to carry, since everything would be too far away from the correct floor. A closed window would also prevent the sound from carrying, since most buildings tend to be well insulated. Since the whole operation depends on a steady flow of electricity, a break in the middle of the wire would also cause problems. Of course the fellow could shout, but the human voice is not loud enough to carry that far. An additional problems that a string could break on the instrument. Then there could be no accompaniment to the message. It is clear that the best situation would involve less distance. Then there would be fewer potential problems. With face to face contact, the least number of things could go wrong.

(Bransford and Johnson 1972:719)

## Appendix 2

### Design of the Recognition Test

***Original:***

1) He wished his voice could be heard clearly. (Yes)
2) Everything would be too far away from the correct floor. (Yes)
3) His voice was not loud enough to carry that far. (Yes)

***Paraphrase:***

1) If the window was closed, it was difficult to hear the sound clearly. (Yes)
2) It would be better for them to see each other face to face directly. (Yes)
3) It caused problems if there was a break in the wire. (Yes)

***Meaning change:***

1) If the balloons popped, the sound would be able to carry. (No)
2) There was a break in the middle of the wire. (No)
3) It would be the best if he could shout. (No)

***Scriptally implicit:***

1) The girl could hear his voice clearly. (Yes)

## Appendix 3

### Recall Recognition Test

Which of the following sentences share the same meaning of the passage? (Circle the correct answer).

1) If the balloons popped, the sound would be able to carry. (Yes/No)
2) Everything would be too far away from the correct floor. (Yes/No)
3) The girl could hear his voice clearly. (Yes/No)
4) It caused problems if there was a break in the wire. (Yes/No)
5) He wished his voice could be heard clearly. (Yes/No)

6) His voice was not loud enough to carry that far. (Yes/No)
7) It would be the best if he could shout. (Yes/No)
8) There was a break in the middle of the wire. (Yes/No)
9) If the window was closed, it was difficult to hear the sound clearly. (Yes/No)
10) It would be better for them to see each other face to face directly. (Yes/No)

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# Achieving Effective School Status through the School Management Initiative?

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In March, 1991, the Hong Kong Government published the School Management Initiative (thereafter the SMI), a scheme modelled on the school-based management strategy. As suggested by the sub-title of the SMI, "Setting the Framework for Quality in Hong Kong Schools", the concern is for improving the quality of schooling. In fact, Chapter 3 of the SMI highlighted some of the characteristics of the effective school studies in a few developed countries. The arguments of the SMI seem to be that if the self-managing school modal advocated elsewhere were adhered to, effective school status could be achieved. This article will evoke the literature on effective schools and school improvement to examine how far this logic is valid.

**可以透過「教育管理新措施」達至高效能學校嗎？**

去年三月，香港政府發表「教育管理新措施」（簡稱「新措施」），要在全港學校推行。「新措施」的副題是「改善香港中小學教育質素的體制」。「新措施」的目的在改善中小學教育的質素，至爲明顯。事實上，「新措施」的第三章就引介歐、美、澳洲等地區高效能學校的研究。「新措施」的邏輯是透過其內推薦的管理方法和模式，香港學校便可以成爲高效能學校是否真的如此？本文引用過去十多年高效能學校的研究，探討「新措施」的論點能否成立。

## The Simple Rationale of the SMI

Quoting the *Successful Secondary Schools* by Corcoran and Wilson (1989), which reviewed the studies in the US and the UK from 1979 to 1984, the SMI (1991, para3.3) identified the following characteristics as conductive to effective schooling:

- clear goals and high expectations for students
- collaborative planning
- order and discipline
- sense of community
- instructional leadership
- schoolwide recognition of academic success and
- school site management

The authors of the SMI were attracted by the characteristics of the effective school studies (generally referred to as 7, 9 or 12 factors model). They showed at length how ineffective the local schools were when measured against the effective school characteristics[1]. They captured the self-managing schools advocated by Caldwell et al (1989) and the California accountability programme. They seemed to believe that if the self-managing school and the accountability programme were adhered to, effective school status could be achieved. The logic of the SMI is illustrated in Figure 1. This is of course too simplistic a view. The literature on school effects and school improvement has shown that there has never been a sure way to become effective schools. Hereunder is a brief view of the relevant literature.

Figure 1: The logic of the SMI

Self-managing schools ------> Elimination of School Problems ------> Effective Schools

## The Early Work of School Effect Studies

The effective school studies are a relatively new development. Many authors attributed its start to the findings of the "Coleman Report" in 1966, which used a large pool research data to show that schools had little influence on the children's achievements (Wimpelberg et al, 1989; Stringfield et al, 1991). In the 1970s, the studies were carried out mainly in the US and were confined to urban elementary schools which served an overwhelmingly low SES population (Weber 1971; Edmonds, 1979; Brookover et at, 1979). The studies identified some typical successful schools and examined their characteristics. Another development in the research was the use of the "outlier" approach (Lezotte et al, 1978, Austin, 1979). Using regression analysis to school mean achievement scores, the studies identified the "positive outlier" (the highly successful schools) and the "negative outlier" (the highly unsuccessful schools). Surveys were then made to understand the reasons. Five correlates of school effectiveness were established:

- vision/mission/academic goals consensus
- climate (often prefixed by 'safe and orderly')
- strong (instructional) leadership
- high expectation of student achievement
- close monitoring/alignment of instructional programs

The one exception to these approaches is the study by Rutters et al (1979) in the UK, which was longitudinal in nature (the study started in 1970 and lasted for 8 years) and dealt with secondary schools. In this period, it was generally held that if the characteristics of effective schools were adhered to, effective schools could be achieved. This simple and seemingly manageable correlates of the effective school research sparked off a rush towards the effective school model. Many districts in the USA went forward to mandate effective schools which required every student to acquire basic competencies before graduating from general education. The overall concern of this era of effective school studies, according to Wimpelbery et al (1989), was on equity.

## The Later Phases of School Effect Studies

In the 1980s, more research was carried out and more divergent results were generated. The five factors (later seven or more factors) theories of school effectiveness could not adequately describe the situation in the secondary school; nor could they apply across cultures (Creemers & Scheerens, 1989, Levine & Lezotte, 1990). What is effective is understood to be determined by the contextual factors of schools which involve:

(a) the grade level, SES and subject matter (Wimpelberg et al, 1989),

(b) the school's catchment area (Hallinger & Murphy, 1986) and

(c) the stage of development of the school (Stringfield & Teddlie, 1990).

Based on the studies by Brookover et al (1979) and Galloway (1983), Reynolds (1991) pointed out that the day-to-day management of the effective school may be different. The definition of effectiveness depends also on what outcome measure is adopted and academic effectiveness is not associated with affective outcomes (Mortimore et al, 1988). With the emphasis shifted to the contextual question, this era of effective school studies focused on the efficiency basis.

In the more recent effective school studies, attention has been drawn to a number of more sophisticated themes. In leadership, suggestion was made to include the "other-than-principal" leadership behaviour (Wimpelberg et al, 1989). In methodology, a multi- factor, multi-level study was introduced (Scheerens & Creemers, 1988). Using the school as a starting unit, the analysis went down to the classrooms. The interest was to understand what proportion of achievement was due to classroom or school, or both. The concepts of school climate and culture were raised and the concern was to find ways to create effective schools and to sustain effective practices. A number of studies in the US have attempted to address this issue. The study by Brookover et al (1979) found that students' achievements were related to "school climate". The Louisiana School Effectiveness Study (LSES) phase II and III identified many correlates of student achievements which were related to school level factors (Stringfield & Teddlie, 1989).

Thus far, we have known a lot more about the factors associated with effective schools and the research methods have become rather sophisticated. However, there are still weaknesses associated with the effective schools studies so far. Sackney (1992) summarised them as follows:

(a) narrow and small samples for intensive study,

(b) inadequacy of the outlier studies

(c) problem of units of observation and analysis (classroom v. school v. district)

(d) inappropriate comparison of "high" and "low" schools and

(e) research results have been essentially correlational, not causal.

Despite the large amount of research work, little is known about curriculum range, content and style of presentation; principal characteristics and relationships among colleagues; school/community relationships and school/parent relationships; teacher characteristics, school organization (Hopkins, 1987) and, above all, the ways to make schools more effective. A further difficulty is of course the lack of consensus on what is "effectiveness".

## Measuring Effectiveness

In management, effectiveness always refers to the accomplishment of the stated objectives. Hence, if a school's stated aim is nothing but to help students to obtain good results in public examinations and if the school is quite successful in so doing, one may have to conclude that this particular school is effective. In fact, in the USA, many studies on school effectiveness used the national standardised achievement tests (often confined in mathematics and reading) as outcome measures. Thus in the USA, to improve "effectiveness" of a school simply means to raise the average scores of students in mathematics and reading. In the UK, the Rutters study and later the Mortimore study (1988) included absenteeism, behaviour in school, delinquency, attitudes and self-concept other than public examination results (or test scores) in their measurement of outcome. Obviously, judging effectiveness of a school only on the criterion of literacy and numeracy has caused dissatisfaction among many educators.

There is a second issue related to the problem. Effectiveness is not the same as efficiency. The latter means to accomplish an objective without waste of effort or resources. It implies getting the value for money, a concern the Government has great interest in advocating. The particular school mentioned in the last paragraph could be effective but inefficient. In other words it could achieve its objective at too high a cost. In Hong Kong, one's attention is drawn to the phenomenon where waste of students' effort in schools is paramount. We all know it too well that one way to raise the Hong Kong Certificate Examination (HKCE) results is by excluding those students who will fail the examination and hence will pull down the average passing rate. This perhaps explains why repeating a class in Hong Kong schools is so rampant. A few unscrupulous schools would, in order to raise the passing rate of HKCE, go one step further to eliminate the weak students and accept the more able ones in the lower forms, or welcome many repeaters in Secondary 5 — a process known as "blood transfusion". So among other things, reducing waste of students' time and effort should be an important ingredient of effectiveness in the Hong Kong setting.

Not only is effectiveness difficult to pin down, it has neither a fixed entity. Reynolds (1991) argued that the future world of work may demand a large range of outcomes, e.g., the skills of learning to learn or working co-operatively which will not be produced by the currently labelled "effective" schools. To match the new outcome, there will be a need to reassess completely the usefulness of the present school processes - a formidable task. Moreover, as schools increasingly have to compete against one another in educational "markets", there will be demand for different leadership and management qualities upon which new measures of "effectiveness" is based. These new complexity and development will make effective study in the 1990s a difficult task.

There has been, alongside the research in school effectiveness, similar efforts known as school improvement to better the overall performance of schools. In fact, the latest era of school effectiveness studies which concentrate on contextual issues already involve elements of school improvement. The movement in late 1980s to promote international interest in the field known as the "International Congress for School Effectiveness and Improvement" is a case in point. School improvement seems to be working in some countries and warrants at least a brief coverage of its practices.

## The Work of School Improvement

The work of school improvement is marked by the concern to do *theory*. It is recognized that in order to be effective, there is a need to link classroom into the school improvement programmes (Fullan et al. 1990). Hopkins (1990) summarized the work of this movement (International School Improvement Project) into a series of cross-national themes:

Theme 1: School-based review for school improvement
Theme 2: Principals and internal change agents in the school improvement process
Theme 3: The role of support in school improvement processes
Theme 4: Research and evaluation in school improvement
Theme 5: Development and implementation of school improvement policies by education authorities
Theme 6: Conceptual mapping of school improvement

School improvement focuses on quality of schooling. Quality is not merely defined in the outcome of competitive examinations or standardized tests, but more in terms of the teachinglearning process and what schools are actually doing with their resources in order to create the best possible learning conditions (Hopkins, 1990). In effective schools studies, efforts are made to identify the characteristics of school effects by using large scale statistical analyses and by making generalisation on the basis of statistical correlations. The studies on school improvement employ qualitative methods to conduct research. They develop knowledge through a process of initial conceptualization, preparation of case studies, collaborative enquiry and reflection.

The last few years have witnessed some serious attempts in bringing about this possibility in some industrialized countries. There have been early reports of initial success and their works are documented[2]. The early lessons with schools which have made the breakthrough include the following features[1]:

- A focus on social as well as academic development
- A focus on growth versus improvement
- A focus on shared decision-making
- Coordination by a small, broadly represented group
- Emphasis on setting the stage
- Commitment to a few key goals
- Engagement in an ongoing, dynamic process
- Emphasis on assessment, monitoring and evaluation
- Use of school effectiveness characteristics in assessment phase
- Commitment to curriculum and instruction
- Recognition of each school's unique context and culture
- Links to the wider existing culture
- School is the centre of change

One important ingredient that runs through these schools is the creation of a positive school cultures — the collaborative culture. "Successful schools realize that development planning is about creating a school culture which will support the planning and management of changes of many different kinds" (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1991). "Collaborative cultures facilitate commitment to change and improvement. They also create communities of teachers who no longer have the dependent relationships to externally imposed change that isolation and uncertainty tend to encourage" (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992)[4]. It is in the atmosphere of help, support, trust and openness where improvement strategies are carried out with marked results.

In their new book "What's worth fighting for in your school?", Fullan and Hargreaves exhibit evangelical zeal in the promotion of a collaborative culture in schools. The school improvement research (movement) seems to show a way ahead for school effectiveness although it is still early to conclude whether the effort is a lasting one. There is also doubt about whether these practices could be applied in cross cultures.

## The Concern of the SMI

The literature on school effectiveness and improvement clearly does not readily support the logic of the SMI. However, the recommendations put forward by the SMI are within the frame of effective schools. An examination of the recommendations show that:

> Recommendations 1 to 3 define the role of Education Department and its relationship with the aided sector. They streamline the wider support for the SMI. Recommendations 4 to 8 propose a new role of the School Management Committee (SMC) and Recommendation 10 stipulates how the new SMC could function with the involvement of teachers, parents and students. Recommendation 9 sets up the accountability programme. Recommendations 11 and 12 offer school autonomy and flexibility in financial management. Recommendations 17 and 18 require schools to publish an annual school plan and a profile to check improvement against school goals.

The SMI is an indication of the Government's intention to improve local schools. The effective school characteristics are convenient examples for the local school to model on. There is a lot to be done by schools. They need to take the initiative so that they could make use of the top-down intention for the progress of the students. The lessons from the school effectiveness and improvement show that "there are no quick fixes" in school effectiveness. It will take quite a while before effects of any kind could be seen. It is certainly not late for local schools to engage themselves in changes now. The SMI is a convenient but useful frame to start.

## Notes

[1] For a criticism of this view, see Wong A. K. C. (1991).

[2] In a conference held in the Institution of Education, University of London in October 1992, two separate teams from US and Canada reported their success in school improvement. The Comer group from Yale's University used change agent model and the Halton group from Toronto University placed emphasis on close cooperation between district, schools and university. Both reports emphasized the importance of changing the cultures of schools.

[3] What's different about the school growth plan? In The challenge of change, the Halton Approach, presented in the conference on *School Improvement: The Search for Quality*, 9th-11th October, 1992 in Institute of Education, University of London.

[4] For full views on collaborative culture, see the Chapter on Total Schools in Fullan, M., & Hargreaves, D., (1992) *What is worth fighting for in your school: working together for improvement*. London, Open University Press.

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# Education Commission Report No.5 and the Organization of Teachers: A Strategy of Limited Professionalism*

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The events that mark the snail-like progress of teachers in Hong Kong towards displaying any of the organizational hallmarks of a profession have largely been affected by vagaries and vicissitudes created, in part, by an administration wary of a potential loss of control over teachers; political and social transition due to change of sovereignty in 1997; and, more significantly, an inability on the part of teachers and their representatives to present a convincing, united, and informed lobby with which to garner support from legislators. Recently, discussion concerning the professionalization of teachers has fluctuated between demands for self-regulation for teachers (Llewellyn, 1982; Preparatory Committee, 1990) and a denial of these calls through cautious responses advocating a greater "sense of professionalism" as an alternative (ECR1, 1984). With the publication of ECR5 (Eduction Commission Report No.5), there is reason to be optimistic that significant progress towards professionalization is within reach. ECR5 breaks the monotonous pattern of request and rebuttal, and produces an imaginative recommendation that can best be described as one of "limited professionalization".

### 教統會第五號報告書與教師組織：有限度專業化的策略

國際顧問團在一九八二年發表的報告書中倡議成立一個香港教師組織，以推廣教師的專業意識。教師組織成立的目的主要是發揮審核教師的學歷，並而對成員作出認許的功能。經過了十年的爭議辯論，這些提議對於涉及改善教學上的結構和組織，仍然流於空談。

本文主要分析專業主義和專業化這兩個矛盾及含意不清的觀念所帶來的一些後果。例如，阻礙教師在教學上發揮他們應具備的自主權與自我反省，和在工作上所賦予教師較大程度的個人操控的權力兩者帶來的不同後果。同時，本文亦探討提供教育機會的因素受到欠靈活的學校制度所帶來的制肘而做成教師在職業上需要作抉擇時所產生的無奈感。

## Introduction

In the aftermath of teacher unrest in Hong Kong during the 1970s, an overall review of education was commissioned (Sweeting, 1992). It was this publication, *A Perspective on Education in Hong Kong* (The Llewellyn Report), that awakened interest in teacher professionalization. The Llewellyn Report (1982, para. III.8.31) recognised the advantages in organising teachers in a manner that would allow practitioners to feel part of a "collegial network of professionals" and a "corporate professional entity".

The Llewellyn Report identified a need to restructure the occupation of teaching in Hong Kong. It suggested the creation of a Hong Kong Teaching Service (HKTS) and saw this as fundamental to improving the conditions of service and the manner in which teachers were organised in Hong Kong. The Report (1982, para. III.8.35) makes specific mention of there being "a case for the promotion structure and procedures to be amended in order to create new types of positions ... which are open to members of the HKTS allocated to the particular sector containing the position". This is a call for change in the procedures through which the majority of schools promote teachers to senior posts. Llewellyn observes that the practice of failing to advertise vacant posts limits mobility for aspiring, career-minded teachers and prevents the "cross-pollination" of ideas. The establishment of an HKTS would serve the function of "controlling the credentials of and, as a corollary, affording recognition to its members" (Llewellyn, 1982, para. III.8.33).

The professionalization of the teaching service, as advocated by The Llewellyn Report was rejected by the Education Commission in its first report (ECR1, 1984). Instead, imbuing teachers with 'a sense of professionalism' was mooted as a means of fostering attitudes conducive to improving the quality of education offered in Hong Kong schools. The pragmatic, political notion of professionalization was now replaced with platitudes promoting a "sense of professionalism". The ECR1 proposals contributed to a decade of debate during which much has been said but little has been achieved with respect to the manner in which teaching is structured and organised. These discussions culminated with the dissemination of the Code for the Education Profession (Preparatory Committee, 1990). A publication that has been described as "a mouse-like document" (Sweeting, 1992).

It is argued in this paper that the Llewellyn proposals addressing the problems inherent in the organisation of the teaching service were contingent upon professionalization. This notion has at its centre the idea that teachers should be given greater say in the manner in which their occupation is organised. These increased powers of self-regulation would include the control of credentials and the monitoring of standards required of teachers (Llewellyn, 1982, para. III.8.33); ensuring that choice and control over decisions affecting career and professional development should lie essentially in the hands of the teachers themselves (Llewellyn, 1982, para. III.8.34-35). However, the assumption by the Llewellyn Report that teaching in Hong Kong had reached a level of maturity that warranted progress in the area of professionalization was not shared by the administration. Instead, this suggestion was perceived as problematic by the Education Commission (ECR1 1984). Ten years after recommendations suggesting that improvements in teacher quality could be attained through professionalization were first instigated, the structure and organisation of the teaching service have remained essentially unchanged, however.

The Education Commission in its most recent report, The Education Commission Report No. 5 (ECR5), realises the failings of the strategy it advocated for "fostering a sense of professionalism" in 1984 as a means of improving teacher quality. ECR5 has now rekindled interest in more pragmatic teacher professionalization through recommendations that teachers be more closely involved in both assessing the acceptability of qualifications of aspiring entrants into teaching (ECR5, 1992, para.7.34) and advising the Director of Education on cases involving misconduct (ECR5, 1992, para.8.18). Paradoxically, echoing the original Llewellyn proposals.

In the sociological literature, professionalism and professionalization are often treated synonymously or as distinct concepts interacting with each other. It is clear that when ECR1 advocates "a sense of professionalism", this is far removed from mainstream sociological theory. Instead, this phrase illustrates a highly idiosyncratic interpretation of the term "professionalism". Therefore there are obviouly limitations in applying current theoretical models to the analysis of the unique factors and tensions that exist in the particular area of teacher organisation in Hong Kong. When the notion of "professionalism" is referred to in this paper, it is in the full knowledge that the stipulative definition of the term offered is at odds with conventional sociological theory. In order to investigate the effect that this subtle misperception has had in stymieing progress towards professionalization, it becomes necessary to provide definitions of some of the terms under discussion.

## Parameters of Profession

Sweeting (1992, p.1) draws attention to the "lack of clarity in much educational discourse about the concept of professionalism which tends to float uneasily between claims about attitudes, aspirations towards a collective solidarity, and the emergence of an ideology". Furthermore, he suggests that there is a tendency in Hong Kong to equate professionalism and professionalization. The following section attempts to highlight some of the difficulties that arise when these terms are treated analogously.

### *Professionalization*

Put simply, professionalization is the process through which occupations progress towards achieving the status of profession. Professionalization allows an occupation to establish organizational structures that allow freedom from bureaucratic and governmental interference. The degree of professionalization an occupation enjoys may be gauged in three ways. In order to be considered *fully* professionalised, that is to be considered a profession, an occupation *must* have the control of entry into the occupation. Second, fully professionalised occupations *must* be organised in ways that allow self-regulation with regards to the conduct of its members. Third, completely professionalised occupations *must* have their services protected by statute (Parry & Parry, 1976; Johnson, 1972; Larson, 1977).

In Hong Kong, we observe these features displayed by some occupations; law, medicine, chartered accountancy, quantity surveying, but not by others; social workers, optometrists, or financial consultants. Progress towards the status of profession by individual occupations varies from country to country (Sykes, 1991). Hong Kong could be said to be in a state of flux where a number of occupations that enjoy the status of profession, in say, Britain or the U.S.A., find themselves in a different point along the continuum of professionalization. There are, of course, dangers in cross-cultural comparisons of professions, however, the point is made that close attention must be paid to the particular socio-political and cultural context in which the study of professions takes place.

Therefore, professionalization is taken to mean the process through which an occupation evolves towards obtaining a greater say in how it is organised and attains powers to determine and protect the conditions and terms under which its members operate. It is clear that the Llewellyn recommendations on the establishment of an HKTS would have resulted in significant progress towards the professionalization of teaching, "a Teaching Service ... would lay down foundation conditions of work (and) ... would be applicable to all teachers" (Llewellyn, 1982, para III.8.33).

### *The discourse of professionalism*

A stipulative definition of professionalism is harder to provide. It can mean all things to all men and conjures up notions of dedication, autonomy, competence, impartiality, morality etc. To illustrate, when a group of full-time Postgraduate Certificate students from The University of Hong Kong were asked to reflect upon the notions elicited by the term professionalism, responses included: 'love and caring'; 'being independent of non-professional criticism'; 'a deep understanding of subject matter'; and 'respect for others'. The concept of professionalism is seen by Pang and Tam (1986) as lying within the affective domain of professional development and is defined as "ways to increase teachers' devotion, interest, enthusiasm, and commitment for the improvement of practice". Noticeably, this interpretation of "professionalism" is at odds with that of mainstream sociology and contributes towards obfuscating the issue. The discourse of professionalism also draws upon terms such as professional commitment as "[a] low level of professional commitment among teachers was expressed in the early 1980s in the Overall Review of the education system" (Education Department, 1991, para.2.19). Hoy and Miskel (1991, p.151) comment, "Few teachers escape the oral or written exhortations on professionalism. Some administrators use the term 'professionalism' as a cry to rally support for the school or for a given decision.... A safe prediction is that many educational administrators have a conception of a 'professional' teacher as one who is loyal to the administration and the organization..."

There are obvious difficulties in defining professionalism and terms that are directly related to it. For the purpose of this analysis, the term is considered a state of mind or attitude, incapable of empirical definition. Professionalism is defined as an ideology, a doctrine or set of beliefs that individuals or groups may hold towards the nature of teaching and the role of the teacher. Ginsburg, Meyenn & Miller (1980, p.195) define ideology as "sets of categories of thought, values and assumptions which .... may distort, misrecognise, mask or incompletely grasp the primary workings of institutions."

Examples of these ideologies may be found in references to teaching such as "teaching is a caring profession", "teaching is a vocation" or "teaching is the noble profession". Burbules and Densmore (1991, p.48) define teacher professionalism as a "framework of justification" and suggest that this ideology "reveals some issues but conceals others; it is contradictory and ambivalent in its appeal". What Burbules and Densmore define as the "rhetoric of professionalism" is seen as serving to trivialize teaching, "the positive aura of professionalism is used to manipulate teacher acceptance of orders, responsibilities, and work conditions that no true professional (in the traditional sense of the term) would put up with" (1991, p.48, original parenthesis). The ideology of profession, then, affects how individuals perceive themselves, and determines attitudes to the work they do. The problems in defining 'professionalism' are exacerbated when the fact that ECR1 was advocating a 'sense of professionalism' is taken into account.

### *Education and the ideology of profession in Hong Kong*

"The phrase 'the teaching profession' trips easily from the tongue" (Betts, 1986, p.17). Whenever two or more teachers are gathered in the name of Education, words like professional and professionalism are inevitably invoked. There exists a conventional, commonsense notion that teaching could not be classified as anything other than a profession. However, on closer scrutiny, it becomes clear that differences exist between "meanings generated by the employers and the employees" (Lawn & Ozga, 1988, p.47), and that there are "wide divergences of views and interests among teachers, often stemming from the different age groups with which they are concerned" (Gordon, 1983, p.11).

To elaborate, in a submission to the Education Department commenting on the Llewellyn Report's proposal for an HKTS, the Hong Kong Association for Science and Mathematics Education (HKASME) (a professional association) (1983, para.7.1) "The HKASME supports such a move so that teachers have more of a sense of unity to the profession rather than to Government (if civil servants), or to the establishment controlling the school (if the school is either aided or private)". Contrast this with the submission of the Hong Kong Professional Teachers' Union (HKPTU) (a trades union) in response to the Llewellyn Report. The offer of a code of practice is seen as an opportunity through which the status of teachers may be improved (HKPTU, 1983, para.10.27) and through which control over the registration of teachers may be attained (1983, para.10.28). The HKASME chooses to focus on the rather abstract idea of unity to the profession whereas the HKPTU is more concerned with status and registration. These distinct comments reveal some of the underlying differences in the interpretation of profession.

Rita Fan (Chair of the Education Commission) comments (1991), "We do not consider teaching merely a 'job'. We believe it is a 'career' and we would like to see it become a 'profession'." Rita Fan would like to see teaching *become* a profession. This, of course, implies that in her view teaching may not be considered a profession as it stands. However, the Preparatory Committee of the Code for the Education Profession (1990, para.1.9.1) states, "The Committee considers education *is* a profession" (my exphasis). These disparate views are difficult to reconcile.

The distinction of 'career' as opposed to a 'job' is an interesting one and adds potence to the argument espoused in this paper namely that a dearth of career opportunities, and procedures in recruiting teachers for senior posts that lack transparency and accountability dilute the claim that teaching is a career. According to Weber (1947, p.334), a career orientation reflects "a system of promotion according to seniority, achievement, or both. Promotion is dependent on the judgement of superiors". The majority of teachers in Hong Kong never obtain a promotion. In addition, significant numbers of teachers remain in one school and at one level (i.e. primary or secondary) for the duration of their working life. Teachers do not have the level of promotion opportunities that one would associate with a career let alone a "profession".

This section has attempted to provide workable definitions of the two major concepts under discussion and evidence detailing the effect of varying ideologies of profession. It is hoped that a clearer understanding of the assumptions and implications involving each term may help to bring us out of the morass of ambiguity and contradiction that invariably results from discussions invoking this nomenclature. It is reiterated that, in much of the literature, professionalization and professionalism are frequently treated as synonymous and this often tends to obscure understanding of the issues under discussion.

## ECR1: The Rhetoric of Professionalism

Now that a model has been provided through which the phenomenon of profession and teachers in Hong Kong may be examined, we can turn to an analysis of events that ensued the Llewellyn recommendations so dependent upon evolution along the professionalization continuum by teachers in Hong Kong.

The Education Commission in its first report (1984) considered the recommendations of the Llewellyn Report (1982, para.4.30) on the subject of a Hong Kong Teaching Service and arrived at the conclusion that "A Teaching Service is not the solution to overcome the problem of disparity in qualifications of service within the teaching force". Instead ECR1 (1984, para.4.32) recommended the 'fostering of a sense of professionalism' ECR1, thus, circumvented the controversial issue of an HKTS and a call for developments in professionalization and transmuted the Llewellyn recommendations into the anodyne notion of a sense of professionalism (Chincotta, 1991). Even if it were possible to define professionalism in a satisfactory manner and even if a sense of greater professionalism could be fostered, this would have no impact on the way teaching is structured in Hong Kong. Conversely, as Burbules & Densmore (1991) have suggested, this rhetoric would be more likely to engender acceptance of the *status quo*. Pang and Tam (1986, p.10) agree that "no specific model for the development of "professional spirit" (professionalism) exists". Consequently, the effect that a dependence upon professionalism as a strategy for improving the conditions in which teachers carry out their responsibilities would be negligible. The fostering of a sense of professionalism would be ineffective in inducing significant change precisely where Llewellyn identified change was most needed, this being the structure and organisation of the teaching service.

Admittedly, the Llewellyn Report (1982, para.8.45, 8.5) does refer to the "generally unimpressive" and "uninspired and stilted pedagogical approaches" witnessed in Hong Kong classrooms. However, at no time is this observation considered a manifestation of behaviour lacking in "professionalism" on behalf of individual teachers. The performance of teachers is seen as a direct consequence of inadequate training and lack of in-service activities rather than a reflection of the commitment and competence of teachers. In fact the term "professionalism" does not appear throughout the whole of the Llewellyn Report. This unusual interpretation of the Llewellyn recommendations by the Education Commission is most perplexing. The introduction of the idea of "a sense of professionalism", as opposed to the professionalization that the Llewellyn Report was advocating, may have been due to concerns on the part of the administration over a possible loss over the control of the supply of teachers for the education system. The Education Commission asserts that the practice of the Education Department in "the system of registration and permission ensures that the credentials of teachers are tightly controlled. However, because of the shortage of qualified teachers, a wide range of professional competence is accepted...." (ECR1, 1984, para.4.26).

Taken within the context of political life in Hong Kong and a number of significant developments that had taken place in Hong Kong at the time (e.g. The Precious Blood Golden Jubilee School Dispute of 1978, [Sweeting & Morris, 1991]), any talk of powers of registration being conferred to teachers was a highly polemical and contentious recommendation. Allowing teachers powers over registration would have resulted in colossal progress towards professionalization but this suggestion was untimely. At the time there existed significant numbers of unqualified teachers employed mainly, although not totally, in the private sector. There was also an undersupply of qualified teachers. Figures for 1983 quoted in ECR1 were 1,500 untrained non-graduate teachers in the public sector, 3,434 untrained non-graduate teachers in private schools and 29,360 in-service graduate and nongraduate teachers in need of refresher training. Had teachers obtained powers of registration it is no understatement to suggest that the provision of education would have been in crisis. The Llewellyn Report perhaps failed to take this into account and it was quite appropriate for the administration to stymie this proposal as effectively as possible.

The fears of the administration in relation to militant unionism were also reflected in ECR1 (A1984, para.4.29), "there is also considerable union-type activity through which teachers in the government/aided sector are able to influence the conditions of their employment". This contrasts markedly with the Llewellyn Report's observations on matters regarding the level of union activity in Hong Kong (1982, para.III.8.3), "Though there are several teacher's organisations these by no means attract full membership, nor did they lobby us emphatically on key education issues, especially when compared with some of the lay bodies ... unions do not yet have much political leverage".

What is mystifying is why the administration felt it necessary to throw out the baby of teacher improvement with the bath water of registration. Other more relevant and practical recommendations in the area of improving the structure and organisation of the teaching service were completely ignored. These measures include steps enhancing the status of primary teachers and extend career structures for all (Llewellyn, 1982, III.8.11), affording teachers time and incentives to attend to their important professional leadership roles in relation to junior colleagues (para.III.8.45).

As part of its attempt to 'foster professionalism', the Education Commission in its first report (ECR1, 1984) recommended that a committee be established to 'prescribe ethical standards of conduct for teachers in the execution of their professional duties'. Two of the main objectives of the Code were to attempt "to obtain the community's confidence in and support for the profession by emphasizing the social responsibilities of the profession towards the community" (Preparatory Committee, 1990, 1.10.5) and "to elevate the autonomy and social status of the profession through professionalization" (1.10.6). It is unclear how these objectives could actually contribute toward the 'prescribing of ethical standards'. What is witnessed here is an attempt to improve the status of teaching. However, this muddled view of professionalization assumes "the status of profession is somehow bestowed on an occupation by an appreciative and generous public. This is not how it happens. The actual historical steps of becoming a profession involve aggressive social and political action ..." (Burbules & Densmore, 1991, p.31).

The conclusions of the *Code for the Education Workers (CEP)* (1990, para.4.4), "it is inconceivable to have a Code without an organisation to implement the Code", fails to provide the administration with an effective means through which the 'fostering of a sense of professionalism' could be achieved. Faced with the task of defining a chimera, the Preparatory Committee instead chooses to focus on issues of registration and a General Teaching Council. In effect, this signals a return to concerns over the professionalization of teaching. The CEP instead renewed interest on the specific issues of the registration of teachers and the creation of a General Teaching Council (GTC) (Preparatory Committee, 1990, para.4.8). It is paradoxical that the conclusions of the CEP, "The committee is fully aware that the major concern of the proposed General Teaching Council, by its very nature, will be the registration of professionals" (1990, para.4.12), mirror those of the Llewellyn Report on the subject of a Hong Kong Teaching Service (HKTS): "The teaching profession should be given a new structure to improve its effectiveness through controlling the credentials of ... its members" (Llewellyn, 1982, III.8.33).

Mention must be made that, in some respects, the conclusions of the CEP may have been affected by events in China during May/June 1989. The first draft of the Code, published in October, 1989, is coloured with some highly idiosyncratic language given the nature of the document. "We ... aware that a free society is dependent upon the education provided for its residents, affirm the right to freely pursue truth and knowledge" and "A member must be free to contribute fully to an educational environment which secures the freedom to teach and the freedom to learn" (Preparatory Committee, 1989, 3.1.1 and 3.1.4). These clauses were omitted from the final draft published a year later. Concerns over the transfer of sovereignty in 1997 refocused the attentions of the CEP from a code of ethics to the establishing of an autonomous teaching service. This development altered the agenda under discussion from the fantasy of professionalism to the politics of professionalization.

Whether or not the CEP recommendations are implemented and the teaching force is allowed more autonomy and freedom from central control has attained a crucial significance in the light of unrest and apprehension concerning the transfer of sovereignty in 1997 and the current political climate. When the idea of an HKTS was first mooted in 1982 the debate lacked a poignancy that it most certainly has now. The establishing of a GTC may be viewed as a bid to distance teachers away from centralised governmental control and an attempt to erect a buffer to protect education from interference emanating from the People's Republic of China. Indeed, recent moves by the Education Department in the form of *The School Management Initiative* (SMI) (1991) indicate that the administration is cognisant of the need to revise the locus of school and teacher autonomy (Education and Manpower Branch & Education Department, 1991, para.2.22). However, the motives behind this policy may be as much political and economic as they are concerned with the professionalization of the teaching force.

## ECR5: A Strategy of Limited Professionalization

The Education Commission in its fifth report (ECR5) devotes Chapter 8 to the issue of teacher professionalism. The main recommendation is the setting up of a Council on Professional Conduct in Education (CPCE). However, in terms of teacher professionalization, the most important recommendations are contained in the previous chapter titled "Advice on Teacher Education and Qualifications". This earlier chapter has important implications with regard to powers of registration. As has already been emphasized, the separation of professionalism from professionalization seems to be in keeping with the peculiar interpretation of these terms consistent in discussions relating to teachers and profession in Hong Kong.

Although the recommendations for a CPCE seek to build upon the seminal work of the Code for the Education Profession, ECR5 (1992, para.8.22) is highly critical of the Code, " ... provisions, while expressing worthy ideals could not in their present form easily be used as operational criteria to assess professional conduct". It also criticises other provisions for being more suitable for a manifesto than a professional code (para.8.22). ECR5 stresses the need for a CPCE to have the wide acceptance of the majority of the education fraternity and recommends that most of the members of the Council to be chosen by election (para.8.24), and that these members should serve in the capacity of individuals rather than representatives of any organisation or sector (para.8.26). These are two crucial features that eluded the Preparatory Committee for the Code for the Education Profession.

The ECR5 suggestions are more focused and direct than the corresponding recommendations in ECR1. Interestingly, whilst the latest report dedicates a total of nine paragraphs outlining the specific workings of the CPCE and its precise function, ECR1 glibly committed one paragraph and a total of two sentences to its corresponding recommendations for a code. The deficiencies of the CEP are clearly understood by ECR5 and this results in a Code Mk.II being proposed that will serve as a point of reference "in cases of dispute or alleged professional misconduct involving educators" (Education Commission, 1992, para.8.24). This clearly are the raison d'etre for any professional code and not the vague 'fostering of a sense of professionalism'.

Notwithstanding, the ECR5 proposals fail just short of full professionalization, "[T]he Council would advise the Director of Education on appropriate action to take in resolving such disputes and cases. The ultimate decision on any penalty should remain with the Director, but he [sic] would have to justify any rejection of the Council's advice" (1992, para.8.20).

ECR5 also recommends that there be "a single source of authoritative advice on all matters relating to teacher education and qualifications and a more sophisticated mechanism for assessing the adequacy and relevance of education and professional training acquired overseas" (1992, para.7.2). It is envisaged that this objective might be achieved through the creation of an Advisory Committee on Teacher Education and Qualifications (ACTEQ). A new assessment procedure involving examinations is suggested. This mechanism would be crucial in regulating the supply of registered teachers although the Commission is keen to stress that it is important that this procedure should "not encourage the notion of a 'back door' into a teaching career" (1992, para.7.33). Most significantly, it is proposed that teachers and teacher educators comprise the majority on the ACTEQ. This feature is of extreme importance for the long term professionalization of teaching in that in involves qualified practitioners in the decisionmaking procedure for accepting new entrants into teaching. By extension, this allows an amount of control over entry, an essential attribute for any realistic claim to be regarded as a profession. It should be noted that, these recommendations propose limited, rather than full, professionalization inasmuch as the ACTEQ is envisaged as an advisory body with no real legislated powers.

Were the measures outlined in this section, limited as they may be in terms of full professionalization, to be adopted, it is clear that this would signify enormous progress towards establishing teaching as a full-fledged profession in its own right. Teachers in Hong Kong would be among the most professionalised in the world. However, this says more about the dismal state of teaching as profession globally than it necessarily does about the achievements of teachers in Hong Kong. It is quite clear that it is limited professionalization that the Education Commission advocates rather than full professionalization. Whilst recognizing the need for teachers to participate more actively in matters that concern the occupation, the Commission is wary of recommending full professionalization, to do so might jeopardize the success of this package of proposals. ECR5 also recognises a series of issues that require further elucidation before further progress toward professionalization can realistically be sought. These hurdles include consideration as to whether underqualified and untrained teachers should enjoy equal professional rights and be engaged in comparable duties as trained teachers duties (1992, para.8.11); whether membership of the CPCE should be mandatory (1992, para.8.12); and, perhaps of greater importance bearing in mind Hong Kong's nascent interest in the democratic principles, the procedure by which the governing body of the CPCE would be elected (1992, para.8.13). Nevertheless, by adopting a moderate stance, the Commission has increased the chances of seeing its policy recommendations succeeding and finding their way onto the statute book.

## Conclusions

The struggle for professionalization by teachers in Hong Kong over the last two decades has been one of changing fortunes and erratic notions. After more than ten years of circular and ill-informed debate some progress has finally been achieved. Serious consideration is being given to the idea that teachers and the service they provide will be significantly improved by allowing teachers limited powers of self-regulation. If the ECR5 proposals are accepted and adopted by the administration this would signal the achievement of limited, but significant, development in terms of the professionalization of teachers. ECR5 provides teachers in Hong Kong with a magnificent opportunity in which to make significant headway towards obtaining full professionalization at a later stage if this is what they so wish.

It would be apposite to end on a note of caution. "[P]rofessionalization is a package deal, and if teachers were to become fully professional in the traditional sense of the term, it would have detrimental effects on their students, the parents of their students, other local community interests, and particularly the many current teachers who could not remain in this newly constituted field" (Burbules & Densmore, 1991, p.59). Although the vista described by Burbules and Densmore is a long way in the horizon it is prudent to keep sight of the ultimate consequences of achieving the traditional hallmarks of full professionalization.

It would be a sad day indeed if teaching were to display some of the more avaricious features of economic self-interest displayed by certain established professions. It is up to teachers and their representatives to consider the advantages of insisting on full professionalization or making a success of the opportunity for greater, though limited, self-regulation and control offered by ECR5.

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# 「學校管理新措施」對中學行政決策民主化的影響

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本文通過一些現存的資料及有關的文獻，討論「學校管理新措施」對學校行政決策的影響，尤其是集中在校董會的結構方面。

## The Influence of SMI on the Formulation of Policies in Secondary Schools

This study investigates the influence of the School Management Initiative on the formulation of policies in schools through existent information and literture. Emphasis is on the structure of the school management board.

## 前言

一九九一年三月教育署發表了「學校管理新措施」報告書，提出了一套嶄新的學校管理概念，希望改善行政效率，提高教學效能，讓學校管理發揮更大的自由度，以處理個別的需要：「教育制度中各層面的責任和負責對象應有明確界定。教育署與資助學校應在這個明確的架構內，建立彼此的關係，而這個關係的重點，應由無所不管改爲支援和指導」（教育署，1991，頁32）。

「新措施」在教育界中引起廣泛的迴響，而且在同一行政決策民主化的建議上產生了完全兩極的理解，有人認爲報告書的建議能「加強對校長和校董會權力的監察」（賀國強，1991，頁15）；亦有人說「假如給予校董及校長更大的自主權，會令教師參與校政的機會更渺茫」（程介南，1991，頁10）。究竟誰是誰非，關鍵似乎在於報告書內的「建議十」是否能貫徹實行：

建議十：學校管理架構應容許各有關方面按照正式程序參與制訂決策，其中應包括全體教師、校長、校董會，以及（在適當程度上）包括家長和學生。

本文主要討論此建議的可行性，並嘗試探討「新措施」中行政決策民主化的問題，提供一些有關資料作爲跟進。

## 「新措施」提出的問題

### 一、校董會的功能

「教育條例只極爲籠統地列出校董會的職責…除訂明須遵守資助則例的規定外，教育條例沒有對資助學校校董會有任何其他要求。由於這些規定過於籠統，因此很難斷言校董會是有效地操作，抑或只是形式上存在」（教育署，1991，頁11）。目前的制度，對校董的資歷沒有明文規定，很多校董會成員，雖是社會成功人士，但未必對教育有深入的認識（陳若敏，1986，頁141）。如果在許多事情上完全以校長的意見爲依歸，便失去校董在決策上應有的作用，但這種現象卻極爲普遍。故此能夠在校董會中適當地引入各方代表共謀決策，無疑是能夠得到廣泛的支持。學校的最高權力機關就是校董會，當教育署退居爲支援角色後，校內糾紛的「終審庭」是否有足夠的透明度及公平的處事方針，是整個「新措施」能否成功的關鍵。否則，極有可能導致校長一人獨大的情況。

### 二、校監的角色

「校監是由校董會委任的一名校董，負責根據教育條例及資助則例的規定，與教育署聯絡和管理學校的賬目。…可能認爲校長既是校董會的受薪僱員，便不應同時被委任爲負責管理學校和管理賬目等工作的校董會代表。事實上，很多學校的校長同時兼任校監一職」（教育署，1991，頁13）。從筆者搜集資料顯示（賀國強，1992a、1992b、1992c），共有 31 間資助中學的校監出現上述的問題，而且大多是一些主要的辦學團體：天主教所辦的有 16 間，佔這類學校百分之五十以上，許多「校長兼校監」同時也是神職人員；其次是聖公會，約佔三分一（見表一）。

表一：校監與校長同爲一人的學校數目

| | 辦學團體 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 學校類別 | 天主教 | 聖公會 | 其他 | 總數 |
| 資助 | 16 | 10 | 5 | 31 |
| | 51.6% | 32.3% | 16.1% | |
| 私立 | 2 | 0 | 11＊ | 13 |
| | 15.4% | 0 % | 84.6% | |
| 總數 | 18 | 10 | 16 | 44 |
| | 40.9% | 22.7% | 36.4% | |

＊在十三間私校中，伯裘書院各分校佔了六間。

其實校監對校長原是有一種制衡的功能。校長是行政總裁，而校監是負責監管學校行政措施和財政運作者。因此如果兩者同爲一人，監管的意義便完全喪失。若校監兼校長，可算是「集軍政大權於一身」，也更爲接近評論者所謂的「小皇帝」了。

「新措施」只承認這問題的存在，而沒有提出具體建議，或修改現行政策中的漏洞。如果只急不及待推出這套「新措施」，而沒有根治存在已久的問題，情況只會惡化。

根據*校管新里程季刊*（校管，1992）報告，廿一所參加第一期「新措施」試驗計劃的學校中，仍有學校維持校監與校長同爲一人的情況，可見有關當局對這個問題視若無睹，或者默許這種情況繼續下去。

「新措施」中還提到「當局對資助學校校董會的成員結構並無任何明確規定…只有一名校董的校董會，是完全合法的」（教育署，1991，頁12）。假設校董會內只有一名校董，而校長是校董會的當然或唯一的成員，他兼任校監便是「順理成章」的事，究竟現時是否有學校出現類似情況呢？

校監工作量有多少？相信這問題就連許多校監也未必清楚，他要執行教育條例及資助則例（對資助學校而言）所指定由校監負責的職務，要作一個名符其實的校監絕不容易，而「新措施」也不忌諱地說：「很多校監是商界人士，不能撥出太多時間料理學校職務」（教育署，1991，頁13），究竟校監是否能發揮其功能，外人很難知曉。

目前有多人身兼多間中學的校監（最多者一人身兼十數間的校監），他們如何有效地處理各校的行政事務、人事糾紛、未來發展和選聘等問題呢？不要忘記他們已有許多繁重的個人工作，我們不應懷疑他們的辦事能力及對教育工作的熱誠，但時間是否容許他們積極投入於每間學校的管理工作當中？這點須要讀者自己思索，本文不宜妄下判斷；但筆者提議他們宜向各校同工分享其治校良方，當中可能有許多值得各同道參詳的地方。

## 「新措施」的建議

「建議十」關於校董會成員結構是較具爭議性的題目，據鄺燕祥（1992）最近一項調查顯示，逾九成半學校未有按「建議十」的安排，而且有部份校董會成員抗拒家長代表加入。相對來說，教師的支持明顯較校董及校長爲高。這項調查與一九八九年的中學校長研討會（1989，頁25）的「大會討論摘要」相符合，當時與會者大體上「認爲宜鼓勵家長積極參與學校活動，但不應容許彼等干涉校內行政。校長可徵集家長的意見，但接納與否，則視乎意見是否中肯。」

### 一、家長會的成立問題

家長代表進入校董會參與校政決策角色，在現階段的確存在很多技術上的難處；除了已設立家長會的學校數目甚少外（全港中學的百分之廿）（賀國强，1988，頁91），家長的平均學術水平仍然未達大專程度，甚至可能未及中學畢業。這是過往精英教育遺下的後果，家長代表的意見未必有很大的說服力。即使現存少數的學校家長會，大多以家長教師聯誼的性質爲主，如果純粹抄襲西方先進國家的辦學模式，而忽略家長的文化背景和知識水平，家長代表的功能未必能收到預期的果效。

再者，教師對家長參與校政決策可能有潛在性的抗拒。在教師專業化的問題上，曾榮光（1984，頁23）論到「一般社會人士對受過教學專業訓練的教師均承認他們具有教導學生的能力，但卻同時相信未受過教學專業訓練的成年人，只要有一定文化水平亦可以教導學生，甚至相信他們亦能達致一定的專業水準，…現代先進社會中的成年人均有在學經驗，因此每每相信能夠理解教學工作，甚至能審核教學工作的質素。

…因此任何有一定教育水平及有一定在學經驗的家長均會理直氣壯地聲稱自己有權及有能力去審核教師的工作表現」，相信部份教師對家長干涉校內行政，存有或多或少的心理負擔。故此，除了要照顧家長的觀感外，也不能因而挫敗教師的士氣。

有人提議，「明文規定（１）校董會要有家長代表；（２）學校要成立家長教師會，出任正副會長的家長和教師爲當然校董」（庸可爲，1991，頁20）。筆者對於第二點不敢苟同，因爲原則上家長和教師是屬於不同的團體，他們對事情的看法可能截然不同。另一方面，家長教師會的代表很難選出，因爲教師每一票所代表的意義是不等同於家長的一票，兩者的數目有很大的差別。教師和家長應分別互選代表進入校董會工作，任何立場意見也是向其直屬團體負責，故此成立純粹的家長聯誼會似乎更爲實際。但「新措施」諮詢委員會的概念卻顯得混淆不清，因爲在*校管新里程季刊*中的「校董會規章樣本」有這樣建議：「如學校設有『家長教師會』，由家長教師成員互選的一位代表應爲校董會成員之一」（校管，1992）。

總的來說，要期望家長在校政決策上能產生正面的作用，我們必先要等待下列客觀條件的出現：（１）整體的教育水平提高（家長的教育水平也相應提高）；（２）民主意識提高，家長醒覺到他們有權利及義務參與校政，幫助他們的子女健康快樂地成長；（３）鼓勵各校盡快成立家長會。鄺燕祥（1992）認爲「可先成立學校諮議會，讓家長接觸校政，而現有校董則可藉此熟習與家長及教師們一起決策校政」，這對於消弭各方的芥蒂有很大的幫助。

還有一點値得一提，就一九九一年所得資料，參加「新措施」第一期試驗計劃的廿一所學校中，只有二間設有家長會。基本上他們在這方面的工作經驗相當有限，作爲一所試驗中學，筆者認爲他們應盡速加强和家長接觸的工作，發揮帶頭的作用。至於家長會的成立，以筆者過往經驗，花約半年時間籌辦一家長會相信不成問題（賀國强，1991）。

## 二、教師代表晉身校董會

教師參與校董會工作的提議，似能得到各方面的肯定和認同，巴真 (Bargen, 1975) 認爲有五大優點：（１）能增加對學校的歸屬感；（２）更容易接納政策的轉變；（３）更能落實政策的執行；（４）改善工作效率；（５）使決策更爲明智。李榮安（1991，頁37－40）指出「很多時，校長若獨斷獨行，不容教師參與決策，他們的反應多會變得冷淡，態度會變得消極」。陳若敏（1990）在中學校長研討會中論述校長和教師間的衝突，成因可能有以下三點：（１）教師日漸專業化及對其專業地位更趨醒覺；（２）現今社會鼓吹參與管理及分享權力；（３）合格教師短缺以及教師行業吸引力日低。這些衝突對學校會產生負面的影響，如果校長仍然以家長式的管理方法來處理校內事務，無疑是與時代脫節，更貶低了教師要求參與決策的動機。而事實上多數的教師是希望藉此表示他們關心學校，和準備承擔責任，這亦是「建議十」能得到廣泛教師贊同的主因。現時的情況，教師能進入校董會「參政」的機會似較家長爲高，除了前文所述關於家長要成爲校董會成員的條件未趨成熟外，主要原因是：（１）基於工作關係，教師會比家長更積極爭取，他們亦有能力向校方施予更大壓力，使這項提議被接納；（２）現在有愈來愈多校長讓教師參與校管工作，培育了一些具潛質的教師，作爲未來校董會的教師代表；（３）近年不少校長相繼離職，許多較年青的中層管理人員晉身爲校長，相信會較易脫離傳統保守的管理模式，也易於接納和體恤同僚的意見；（４）香港的教育政策，近年雖不致於朝令夕改，但也可算是日新月異，單憑校長一人的確難於承擔，在某程度上，校長是渴望得到更多的意見和支持的。未來教師對校政決策有更大的參與，將會是大勢所趨。然而教育同工要重新互相肯定，坦誠溝通和彼此合作；避免意氣之爭，藉着晉身校董會的機會剝奪校長的權責，對學校才有建設性的作用。如果教師能適當地訂立一些作爲代表的應有條件，例如一定年數的教學和服務該校的經驗，都會促使校政運作更趨完善。

## 三、校友會

過去校友會的會務多是獨立於學校行政之外，基本上不受學校管轄，他們的作用會容易被忽略。但事實上校友會的存在對學校維繫優良的傳統文化、籌募經費、升學就業輔導、學校的長

遠發展計劃等，都能辦演積極的角色。現時許多學校均設有校友會，在其職員會中委派一名作爲校董會的校友代表，爲學校提供一額外資源，對於實際的工作有很大的幫助。

## 總結

「新措施」的精神是值得嘉許的，但它不是解決現存許多教育問題的萬應良方。反過來說，如果舊有問題仍未解決，而急不及待推出新政策，逼使各校就範，只會帶來更多弊端，以及「換湯不換藥」的結果。這只會將教育事業帶入死胡同中；爲政者務需三思。

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# 行政措施對語文教學的損害

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教育署對教師的審核工作，一是審核其背景，二是審核其證書的真假及等級，對於教師任教之科目是否其主修科目或擅長科目，則不過問，對於在外地畢業之華教師則設法排斥。於是楊柳與松柏並充語文教學的棟樑，情形日益普遍。隨著大專教育越來越普及，不經品質檢定而通過背景審核及證書審核的人越來越多，中文教師隊伍中龍少蛇多的現象一日比一日嚴重。而學校管理當局又常編排失當，以「一腳踢」的辦法迫使中文程度不好的老師也教中文，造成染污萬千學童的結果。本文認爲當務之急是設立客觀考核制度，通過考核制度來吸收本地及外地人才爲教師，一來可以減少居港外地畢業生的積怨，二來可以淘汰不適宜任教師的本地大專畢業生，三來定期審核在職教師，優先將那些學識水平下降的教師送去進修，以作補救。本文認爲正當社會人士猛烈抨擊師範學院不學無術之際，教統會建議由師範學院舉行審核試是不負責任的做法，徒以行政命令規定以勢壓人，必將引起新的問題。

## The Harm Done to Chinese Language Teaching in Hong Kong by Maladministrative Measures

Much harm has been done to Chinese language teaching by maladministrative measures in Hong Kong during the past forty years. This article brings up two main points in this issue. The first one is that in teacher registration and teacher assessment, the main concerns of the Education Department are simply the political background of the applicant, and whether the applicant has the minimum qualifications to be registered as a teacher. However, there is little attention paid to his major study. Many teachers, including Chinese language teachers, have to teach subjects which are not their own specialties. As over 80% of matriclation students will enter university in 1994, a lot of teachers who are "qualified" but without satisfactory academic standards will serve society from 1997. The education crisis will be more obvious then. The second point is that, very often, principals and headmasters permit or assign teachers of other subjects to teach Chinese Language. Thus, the situation in the school becomes one where there are many "unqualified" Chinese teachers teaching this subject.

The suggestion made in this paper is to allow graduates of China and other places such as Singapore to register as qualified teachers through adequate assessment. Under the principle of equal competition, there must be a language test for both local and non-local graduates. This paper also presents the view that such test and assessment should not be carried out by the Colleges of Education despite the Education Commission's proposal, as the academic standards of these colleges are currently low.

## 教育署審核教師只注重背景審查，不注重學科審查

香港教育署對於教師的註冊工作是做得很認眞的，可惜只停留在審查教師背景方面。例如足跡不出深圳河的畢業生在註冊成爲教師時，教署不會向他的諮詢人問長問短；如果你在內地讀小學，即使在香港完成大學課程，在辦理註冊手續時，你的諮詢人一定會收到當局要求匯報你過往歷史的信件。我當過我的學生的諮詢人，自己在1975年大學剛畢業時登記爲准用教師，以及在1980年轉爲檢定教師時，每次都享受上述須接受調查的「厚遇」，其實我從1961年起已定居香港——小學後半階段在香港就讀並且參加升中試——其後在官立中學畢業。我手上持有教署發給諮詢人此種審查教師背景的信件副本，可以說明一切。至於你能夠教甚麼科目，你的語文能力是否足以應付教學，那他們就完全不管了。

由於師範學院和大學教育學院的畢業生通常可以直接註册爲檢定教師，有關方面在錄取新生時就特別「審愼」。我有一位七十年代末期同校工作的朋友，還有一位中學時代的同班同學，兩人在不同年代畢業於台灣政治大學，素未謀面，卻都不約而同地說，居港的政大校友間流傳一個說法，就是香港中文大學教育學院從來不錄取台灣政治大學的畢業生，即使是中文系畢業生也是一樣。我們知道，類似的情形是無法瞭解眞相的，猶如從1950至1990的四十多年間，香港幾家師範學院從不錄取左派「愛國學校」的學生，你要是問教署有沒有政治歧視，答案一定是：「沒有，所有評核都公平辦理。」但是，如果你有良心的話，你會相信嗎？從七十年代中期起，左派學校學生不斷有人考進兩家大學升學，而七八家（最盛的時候有十幾家）左派學校的學生幾十年間竟無一人合資格可考取師範學院，你肯相信考核程序公平嗎？

我大學畢業的時候，到處找工作，先後有兩

間中學準備聘請我，讓我教高中漢語，但要兼教中學一年級英文。我有自知之明，中文科尚勉强可教，英文科只會誤人子弟。我的英語水平極差，居然有人願意請我教這門課，受寵若驚之餘，我發現教育署官員在辦理教師註册時只辨認證書級別，所謂資格審核[1]，是弄淸你的學位等級，根本就不管你是否擅長這一科目。

由於大學教育學院的畢業生一般能順利註册爲教師，它的招生辦法也就値得重視。大學教育學院在招生時，也是像師院一樣，只憑面試印象來決定錄取，對於考生原來修讀甚麼科目並不看得那麼重要。於是本科副修中文的固然可以攻讀中文教學法而成爲中文教師，本科只修歷史學或者哲學的當然也可以用同樣辦法做中文教師。到了教育署負責註册事務的官員手中，只要中小學校方推薦，凡是師範和認可大學畢業生，甚麼科目都准許你教。我認識不少老師，原來讀新聞的，就教起英語來，原來不讀歷史的，也教起預科歷史來。更妙的是，一位剛從經濟系畢業的年輕朋友到一家中學應聘，校方要她兼教會考班中文，她搖頭說不行，校長鼓勵她說：「你會考中文科的成績是甲等，中文水平相信不錯吧，反正課程還沒改，你把舊書本舊筆記找出來溫習一下不就行了。」結果她接受了聘約。我不敢說非主修中文的人語文水平必定不高，但是，未經任何適當審核，你憑甚麼確定人人都能教中文？教師拍拍胸膛，就可以隨意轉換科目來教，這當中難道沒有問題？萬一哪個教師無自知之明，被害的一輩不是很冤枉嗎？

教育署審核教師的制度顯然只是確保教師有最低限度的學歷，並不注意教師是否有基本語文能力，也不注意教師是否對所任教的科目有充分的認識。許多學位教師，特別是海外大學畢業的教師，原來是所謂「書院仔」「書院女」，漢語水平很差，如果剛巧在中文中學任教，他除了滿口方言粵語外，能否應付日常編寫講義、擬考題和批閱卷子等等的教學工作？還有，作爲班主任，也許要批閱學生的週記，怎麼辦？回頭看看目前香港幾間大專學校的學生，他們在會考時中文水平即使還過得去，經過幾年實行「三不」策略（不看中文書報、不寫中文作文和不說標準漢語），肯定會忘懷和退化，一旦執起教鞭來，那時所謂母語教學，恐怕都是「新生代語言」了。

爲了使玫瑰園建造計劃落實，香港需要加速培養人才。有人估計，在1994年秋季，香港各大專院校因爲錄取名額增加，絕大部分預科生都可以升上大學。據1992年10月22日「星島日報」報導，本年度六間大專全部超額收生，最嚴重的是浸會學院，超收率竟達24.8%。如此使原來要在1994年才可達到的目標竟可提前在1992年實現，即成績無論優劣，幾乎全部取錄。偶然碰上某些校院的同行，無不叫苦連天，說很多學生原來水平很低，根本不應取錄，卻在搶學生的風氣下被大專學院取錄了，於是造成學術水平普遍下降的現象。這是衆所皆知的事實。我們不要忘記，這批新生在1995年就會投入社會服務。而據1992年發表之「教統會第五號報告書」第6.31節所說，到了1994年，中五學生的人數會較1991年減少14%，而中六學額的數目正在增加，持有高級程度會考資格的人士會增加。因此，一般相信，到1994年仍然有80%的預科生能進入本地大專學院攻讀學位課程。當然另外還有一批爲數不少的中學畢業生會負笈海外。我們不妨想一想，屆時那些連常用漢語基本句子都寫不通的同學大部分都能升上大學，他們畢業後未必是語文教師，卻很有可能成爲運用母語教學或者使用雙語教學（教其他科目）的「能手」。

進入師範學院的同學，情況也許更糟。由於香港小學習慣讓教師「一腳踢」——教師甚麼科目都教，他們恐怕要像他們中小學時代某些科任老師一樣，用那種本地通用的「港式語文」來教下一代。1990年10月24日「明報」港聞版報導（頁50），四間師範學院的學生會代表召開記者招待會，「批評育署降低師範學院的的收生資格，將影響教師的水平。」1991年11月28日「華僑日報」報導，來年教育學院的取錄標準將由要求投考人會考六科合格降至五科合格；而1991年12月9日「星島日報」報導，師範學院學生集體要求各院長一齊表態，共同反對當局降低取錄標準。學生包括語文在內的平均程度不斷降低，而當局又只重視學歷，重視背景，並不理會教師的眞正素質，長此下去，香港漢語教學的前途是光明呢，還是黑暗？

## 學校調配教師的措施經常損害語文教學

必須承認，論工作，香港的教師比亞洲其他地區的教師辛苦。舉個例子，香港中學教師平均每週上二十九課時，小學教師平均每週上三十二課時，其他地區的教師每週上課時數通常二十左右而已。本港中小學教師平均每人要負擔三十到三十五個學生，1987年上海中學教師每個人負擔11個學生，（石、高等編，1989，頁311）小學教師每個人負擔17個學生，差距是相當大的。

由於要按規定的課時編課，小學教師很難避免不教中文，因爲其他科目每週規定時數少，一個教師即使教十班社會科，也不能湊足三十二課時，唯有人人都兼教中文，才能順利編排時間表。結果，小學老師唯有人人「一腳踢」，原則上大家都教中文、社會、自然和健教等科，術科則視情形而定。校方一向如此編課，教師一向如此講課，師範學院一向如此訓練，好像甚麼問題也沒有。有些校長出於好心，想讓班主任多接觸他的班級，把該班幾門課都讓他教，碰上一個只能以標準粵音騙人的老師，這一班同學的學業算是報銷了。另外一種情形稍微好一些，校長讓每個老師教不同的班級，碰上只能以標準粵音騙人的老師來了，即使幾百個學生在短時間內皆望風披靡，因爲接著有其他人來中和，中毒也就沒有那麼深。

中學非語文教師要一星期塡滿二十九課時並不容易，例如體育科教師，每班每週上兩個課時，全校如果二十四班，通常聘請兩位體育教師，即每人平均上二十四課時，還有五課時的空檔怎麼辦呢，唯有讓他們兼教其他科目，語文科也許是最容易出賣的科目。

一般所謂英文中學，只是掛羊頭賣狗肉，並不能眞正做到事事皆英，課課皆英，語語皆英。結果，師生同心協力寫不通的標語、貼不通的通告、出版不通的刊物，你寫我閱那文句不通的週記。

在五十年代和六十年代，有個別教會學校的外籍負責人，認爲凡是中國人都可以教中文，這種情形今天偶然也有。他們大概不明白，香港人想的、說的是一種語言，學的卻是另一種語言，能說會道的人有時一句也不能寫。在許多年前，我有一位同事，平日說起話來，滔滔不絕，談笑風生，議論精警，講故事活靈活現；可是一旦拿起筆來寫文章，毛病很多，使人驚訝。假如不涉及文字，僅從粵語角度觀察，他肯定是一個好的語文老師。可是，我們對香港語文老師的要求就只停留在這個階段嗎？奇怪的是，今天仍然有不少校長持這種態度。

每一間學校都是一個獨立系統。教師不使用中文則已，任何一個教師使用病態中文，都將對校內學生產生或大或小的影響。教師帶給學生的錯誤訊息日積月累，錯誤的觀念不斷加強，其結果必然是染朱成墨。

## 應建立健全的考核制度

### 一、考核非香港大專畢業者任本地語文教師的資格

最近兩年，報章不斷報導，中小學教師的流失率嚴重。許多學校只能聘用代課教師。有的學校甚至要找人「代上代」。「明報」1990年6月18日報導記者訪問官立中學學位人員協會會長蔡崇機的談話，標題是這樣的：

> 官校教師失血嚴重
> 代課老師似走馬燈半年11副面孔
> 體育教師無人願當學生全年自修

應該指出，半年十一副面孔是僅指電腦科而言。該段訪問中透露當時四十間官立中學當中有八十五個空缺，即平均每間中學欠兩個教師。又1990年11月6日「明報」校園版「教學漫筆」專欄刊登一篇署名寒挺翠的文章——「教學問題變問題教師」，列舉時下許多「楚材晉用」及「庸材將用」的實例。讀者觸目驚心，反映教師問題之嚴重。這種情形到1992年11月，即兩年後，基本上沒有改變。教育發展之緩慢是令人吃驚的。

我們知道，香港當局長期實行各種保護政策。以醫生爲例，過去只准英聯邦醫科大學畢業生註册執業。後來市民發覺醫務人員嚴重缺乏，市民中有大量非英聯邦醫科大學畢業生卻長期飽受歧視，不得執業，造成社會人力資源浪費。經過市民的不斷爭取，最後非聯邦醫科畢業生終於取得公平看待的權利：那就是檢定其學歷，通過適當考核後，給予實習機會，最後讓他們執業，成爲醫生。

粵俗云：「人命關天」，庸醫隨時可以奪去我們的生命，所以香港市民一向重視醫生資格。在此情形下，大家尚且可以懷著開明的態度，要求當局准許合條件的人士通過參加考試來獲取執業資格，反而對於在台灣和中國內地畢業的大學生——那些沒有或者少受港式中文污染、能用標準漢語自由表達己見的人士，長期歧視：或者不讓他們註冊爲教師，或者不讓他們獲得合理的待遇，這是爲甚麼呢？

1990年6月21日「明報」港聞版報導，教聯會理事長程介南提出建議，應該讓非英聯邦大學畢業生註冊爲教師，這樣可以紓緩本地教師不足的壓力，也可以平息本地非英聯邦大學畢業生的怨氣。而1990年7月2日「明報」港聞版報導，香港中學校長會歐陽英昌在一個教育研討會上「建議政府考慮聘用台灣，甚至國內的非英聯邦學位教師教授中文，可解決師資不足的問題，用普通話授課更可提高學生中文水準。」「香港時報」1991年9月1日報導，「台灣大專院校香港聯合校友會」會長認爲，當局應承認台灣大專畢業生資格等同本地大學生，目前教署只承認台大、師大和成功大學三所院校之學位。事實上當局到現在仍然使用拖字訣，對這個問題停留在研究階段。「教統會第五號報告書」（頁78－80）初步提出一些辦法，雖然可商榷之處還很多，到底是可喜的傾向，值得鼓舞。我認爲，通過適當的考核程序和實習程序，讓台灣和中國內地畢業的語文專科人才得以充任中小學教師，是切實可行的辦法，是一種積極解決問題的辦法。

同時不要忘記一點，就是本地師範學院和大專畢業生也應該參加同樣的考試，以維持同一標準。同時也可以及時阻截一些語文程度不好的本地大專畢業生當教師。如果本地大專畢業生的語文水平確實有問題，爲甚麼不實行擇優而聘呢？通過客觀合理的考核，讓在不同地區大專畢業的香港市民都有同等的就業機會，不是能使社會更公平更合理更融洽嗎？

「教統會第五號報告書」提議將初期之審核工作交由教育學院（師範學院）去處理（頁79），這是不負責任及使人驚訝的提議。現在師範學院無學術可言之情況已是本港教育界人所共知的事實，必須指出，從本港考核非英聯邦醫生的歷史來看，審核舉行初期，接受審核者之數量必多，而其中大部分人必屬於中國大陸、台灣和海內外非英聯邦大學畢業生，他們的平均學歷不知要比本地師範學院院方之學術水準高多少倍，這種蓄意以下凌高、以小壓大的做法，必然引起不滿和混亂，負責考核的教師最多只能誠惶誠恐地以勢壓人，以其較低的學養根本無法有效評核應考者的斤兩——也虧教統會諸公想出這種一刀傷兩面的辦法！過去當局强迫浸會、嶺南和樹仁畢業生到師範學院受訓，本人在師範學院工作六年多，已深知其中頗有怨言，而師範學院上下對此又無可奈何，如今當局重施故技，不知意欲何爲！

## 二、察核中小學調配教師的做法

科有專任，不得逾越——語文教師只應在通過適當的考核以後講授他勝任的科目。如果各科全面推行考核制度，那麼，多個科目合格的教師可以任教其取得合格的全部科目。

總之，其他科目的教師想教中文科，首先必須參加考試。就像一個獸醫，他想醫獸也醫人，就應該參加另一次考試，取得另一項資格。最好的辦法是鼓勵教師修讀公開進修學院課程，讓他們認識其他學科的知識，結業以後參加該科（例如語文科）的審核考試。

各學校每年應該編製教師資歷及教學負荷對照表，以便教師公會一類的專業團體可以核對是否「雞刀割牛」。

## 三、定期考核語文教師並分批遣送重修

設置考核機關：設立獨立的具立法功能的教師公會，由教師公會聘請專家設置「漢語教師語文能力評核試」。在教師公會成立以前，可以由香港考試局負責舉行該項考試。

考試每年舉行，每一位在職語文教師隔五年即參加考核一次。

考核內容：語文知識，語文能力。

應考者在一次考試中必須兩部分都及格，如果有任何一部分不及格，該教師即須參加復修課程，直至達到規定水平爲止。

**注釋**

1　師範畢業、認可大專畢業和大學畢業的教師薪級不同。以前榮譽畢業生和普通等畢業生的薪金起點也有分別。

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# 小學生寫作思維過程與寫作教學法的研究

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本研究探討十八個小學生的寫作思維過程，深入探究題材的選擇、書面語和口語的轉換字詞句的修改和文章組織等分項過程；並追尋他們的語文老師的寫作教學法。研究結果顯示這些小學生寫作時有很多顧忌和迴避，沒有發揮他們的自我，也沒有興趣作文。本研究提出多項建議，改善中文寫作教學法。

## A Study of the Composing Process of Primary School Pupils and the Modes of Instruction in Teaching Chinese Writing in Hong Kong.

This paper presents research into the composing process in Chinese employed by 18 primary school pupils in Hong Kong. The research involved an in-depth study of the key sub-processes of generating, transforming, revising and organizing. The modes of instruction used by the subjects' teachers in teaching Chinese writing were also investigated. It was found that the subjects were very cautious writing in their mother tongue. They did not express themselves freely. The implications of the way the subjects were taught to write are far reaching and these are discussed at length. Suggestions are made to enhance the teaching of writing in Chinese.

## 研究範圍及方法

一般語文老師都極重視學生的作文成績，可是怎樣才能提高學生的寫作能力，培養學生的寫作興趣，使學生不把作文視爲例行功課或課外測驗呢？要達到目的，便要深入了解學生的寫作思維過程，並設計以學生爲中心的作文課了。

本文作者曾仔細研究十八個來自不同學校的小學生的寫作過程，希望藉此獲得一些改善寫作教學的啓示。研究對象分別爲小三、小四、小五的學生；他們的寫作能力各有不同。

首先，研究者出文題，請小學生作文，然後把學生構思及寫作的整個過程攝錄下來。九個小學生寫故事，另外九個則選作《我的家庭》或《我的學校》。

進行研究的步驟如下：

甲. 研究者先請各小學生於作文前口述腦中的思維 (thinking aloud) (Emig 1971；Perl 1979)，當研究對象口述構思時，由一人拍攝過程，另一人把話語轉爲文字記錄。

乙. 研究對象隨後寫文章，研究員一邊拍攝，一邊觀察小學生的特別行爲，根據他們的表現記下要提問的重點。

丙. 當研究對象寫好文章後，由研究員針對文章及小學生的作文表現加以提問。

丁. 研究員比較研究對象口述的構思及寫好的文章有甚麼不同，並指出這些地方再向小學生發問。

戊. 研究員整理所有資料，綜合分析各研究對象的寫作過程，歸納出一些結論。

## 結果及討論

### 一、口語及書面語的轉換

根據研究及訪問所得，學生寫作時會把原先腦中所想的字詞或概念加以轉換 (transformation)（謝、張1991）。轉換的原因之一是學生用廣東話來思想，然而卻要用標準的現代漢語寫作；而廣東口語跟書面語在用詞及句法方面都會有不同之處，故此轉換是必須的。

當某些廣東語句的句法與書面語相同時，學生多能作出成功的轉換；但也有失敗的例子：有個學生轉換詞彙時，把「柴」轉換成「樹木」，把「賊」改成「小偷」。這是由於學生誤以爲「柴」及「賊」是廣東口語，因而弄巧反拙。在語氣詞轉換方面，效果較爲理想。學生口述構想的文章時，用了許多雙音節語氣詞，但在下筆時，這些語氣詞均被刪去或替換，證明學生對書面語語氣詞的運用有較清楚的了解。

老師教授作文課時，極强調要學生用正規的書面語寫作，這原本是正確的，但卻不能要求過高。大部分香港學生的母語爲粵語，他們接觸正規書面語的機會有限，多靠閱讀課本或一些課外書。時下流行的不少書籍及一些報章、雜誌上的文章，多用非純正的書面語寫成，甚至一般語文老師亦未能完全掌握普通話詞彙，學生耳濡目

染，往往習非成是，寫出書面語及口語夾雜的語句來。根據研究結果顯示，平均每個學生在下筆寫作時，刻意迴避了四個本來出現於口述構想的意念，原因是他們不懂得如何用書面語把意念表達出來，又不敢發問，唯有避而不談。基於轉換上的困難，學生便不能自由表達心中所想，因而影響文章的內容結構。

其實，對小學生來說，老師鼓勵學生用書面語寫作是正確的，但老師同時亦須容忍學生犯錯。學生可從改正錯誤中學習，循序漸進地發展轉換能力。若老師一開始便過分强調用完全正規的書面語寫作，可能會嚇怕了小學生，扼殺了他們的創意。此外，要求學生有較高的轉換能力須建基於足夠的訓練之上。除了引導學生大量閱讀外，並可提供廣東話及書面語詞彙對照手册，讓學生參考。略放寬小學生作文時用口語的限制，可解除束縛他們思想的桎梏，對發展學生的創意思維大有幫助。

## 二、字句的修改

根據研究結果所得，學生寫作時或寫作後常會作出修改（revision）。平均每個研究對象改錯字6.5次，改字詞2.33次，改句子0.39次。只有二人曾修改段落的安排。在寫作過程中，各研究對象均會停下來思考。在停頓時想字的筆劃的，平均每人有10.44次，想字的用法有2.11次，而想內容的卻只有2次。

大部分學生只習慣思考及改正錯字及字詞（Bereiter & Scardamalia 1987），卻不慣於整理全文的結構及內容，這是由於老師强調學生寫作時須文法正確，不能寫錯字，因而對學生構成壓力。學生爲了避免寫錯字，唯有放棄某些很好的概念不寫，或放棄原本較貼切的字詞，更換一些學生懂得寫、出錯機會較少的字。過分注意錯字的改正，使學生忽略改善文章的整體內容。而學生亦產生錯誤觀念，以爲內容結構的整理多屬老師的工作，依賴老師替他們修改。至於句子的修改次數很少，這可能是由於小學生的能力不足，缺小語感，故較難找出錯誤和改正。

研究者提議老師略放寬對學生寫錯字及犯文法錯誤的扣分制度，鼓勵學生向老師和同學問字及查字典。老師於作文課時亦可提供與題目有關的詞彙，寫在黑板上讓學生參考。學習字詞的正確寫法雖然重要，但是學生學習寫作是分階段進行的，應先着重內容，才顧及書面語的正確運用，最後學習修辭等。如果能鼓勵學生自由表達思想，讓學生寫完文章後才改正字詞，這樣，學生的寫作效果可能會更理想（Biggs, 1988）。

## 三、題材的選擇

在十八個小學生之中，平均每人在腦中均出現了三個以上的影像（影像，即 imagery，是指人暫時脫離了眼前景物，在腦中浮現的一些圖畫，這些圖畫大多是個人曾經歷過、見過的景物，並儲存在人的記憶系統之中），這些影像均與研究對象的個人經歷有關，但由於老師未教授過利用影像寫作的方法，故此學生都不敢把個人的經歷或腦中浮現的圖像描述出來（謝、陳1990）。

此外，平均每個研究對象刪除了曾在構想時出現的13.72個意念，他們這樣做的部分原因是不肯定這些意念是否適合寫給老師看。大部分學生只從課文或以前閱過的文章尋找寫作資料，導致文章欠創意及個人風格。

部分學生表示有些題目是他們很想寫的，如「偶像」，但老師從不肯擬這類的文題。

老師教授作文時，往往只擬文題，未能有系統地教學生如何從記憶系統中提取寫作素材。而且，寫作課程强調寫作教學須配合道德教育及公民教育，學生寫作時便被迫「討好」老師或寫些一般成人認同的觀念，不敢提出獨特的見解，作文只是人云亦云。他們不能清楚認識到寫作的對象，又或只以老師爲寫作對象，故不能盡量開展他們的兒童世界，只能寫適合大人（老師）道德標準及成人口味的文章。其中一個研究對象便曾有這樣的經驗：作文時選擇了金錢爲「萬能」而非「萬惡」的論點。由於立場與老師及所有同學不同，她便取得了不及格的分數。另一名研究對象寫「我的學校」時，腦中出現了許多稀奇古怪的念頭，例如學校裏的「自然角」是她極喜歡的寫作題材，但由於認爲老師不會對自然角感興趣，唯有公式化地描述老師及課室。

不少老師以爲向學生解釋了文題便算完成任務，卻忽略了教學生如何選取寫作素材，例如平日多觀察事物、多方從書報及傳媒吸收資料、回憶個人的經歷、用聯想法、影像法等等。題材、

意念的取捨亦是重要的一環。學生須培養選材的決斷力，明辨甚麼是好的寫作資料。否則，學生寫出來的只會是陳腔濫調，缺乏生氣。

向學生灌輸正確的道德觀念及公民意識是必須的，但不必過早迫使學生趨向「大人化」、「公式化」，讓學生只寫一些「我一定會努力讀書，不辜負父母和老師的期望」等會備受成人讚許的字句。老師應讓學生認識寫作對象的重要，鼓勵學生從不同角度看事物。讀者不同，文章立場及語調亦有異。不要給學生太多思想框框，要讓他們多用文章與同輩溝通，並多寫流露兒童眞情實感的文章。

在討論轉換及修改字句時，已述及過早重視語法和文句修辭會限制學生的思路。其實，老師只出一條文題，沒有選擇，亦會做成同樣的不良效果。老師出題時宜有彈性，如出子母題、塡空題，使學生有更多選擇。老師擬題前亦宜諮詢學生的意見，了解他們的喜好。某些千篇一律的看圖作文或年年如是的「應節文題」（如：中秋節、運動會之類），只會使學生生厭，不能提高他們的寫作興趣。

## 四、文章組織

研究者發現大部分學生的文章多採用三段結構法：即引言，正文及結論三部分。又由於選材方面受到限制，學生在文章組織方面受傳統老師的教學法影響，多有一定的模式。如寫「我的家庭」，衆多學生的文章結構均極相似：大多先述家庭成員的數目，再由大至小依次介紹家中的成員，最後形容自己的家庭如何幸福快樂作結。但研究員訪問學生時，卻發現學生心目中其實不想這樣寫文章，他們另有一些念頭和獨特的組織方法，例如其中一名研究對象想寫被父親責備的一件事，但卻怕寫出來會引致不良的後果（如：破壞老師對他的印象、怕老師知道他的私隱等），結果只好寫一篇公式化文章來虛應故事。如果該學生能擺脫這種既定的寫作格式，利用「受責備的這件事」來反映自己的家庭，可能會寫出一篇結構獨特、內容感人的文章來。

學生採用「三段式」寫作，或用既定模式寫作，是因爲老師大多教他們這樣寫，或認爲老師大多希望他們這樣寫。其實老師要求學生的文章結構嚴謹，規定小學生用標準完美的中文寫作，誠屬苛求。老師解釋分段的準則是必須的，但要向學生說明這準則非一成不變，不可讓學生有錯誤的觀念，以爲要依既定模式而把內容硬塞進去。這概念的澄淸是很重要的。

另外，不少老師要學生先寫大綱，才寫文章，規限了學生用直線思維寫作，這對學生的文章組織也有很大的影響。

老師可在作文課堂上提供結構不同的各種範文讓學生參考，並加以解釋。除了直線思維法外，老師也可開始向小學生介紹其他思考方法，如：腦衝擊法 (brain-storming)、運用腦圖 (brain map) 等，讓學生嘗試用散發性思維法，然後才重組資料寫作。

## 五、字數的規限

十八個研究對象在寫作時，有一個有趣的現象，便是在寫作途中停下來數字數。也有些學生在寫完後再數一次，平均每人數字數2次。有些發覺字數足夠後便草草停筆。

中學會考對學生的中文作文字數有嚴格的規定，如果字數不足，便會扣分。而根據寫作課程，中學及小學各級學生的作文字數亦有限制，這成了學生寫作時的重擔。

擔心字數不足而停下來數字數會打斷學生的思維。學生會以字數——而非內容——作爲文章完結的標準。文章本可寫得精簡的，學生因要遷就字數而勉強把文章拉長；文意未完成，學生卻因字數足夠而生硬地停筆。

有些人會懷疑：字數不足才會被扣分，字數超於規定的數目卻不會遭受處分，那爲何學生要草草停筆呢？這裏涉及另一個問題——謄文。傳統的老師均把學生的作文精批細改，批改後便着學生謄抄，學生爲怕文章太長，重抄時吃力，唯有把文章縮短至最低要求了。其實學生謄文時一般都是機械化地盲目抄寫，未必能眞正了解出錯的原因及修改的標準。同時，學生亦欠缺學習自我修改的機會。

老師不應過分強調文章字數的多少，應教導學生衡量所寫的內容資料須以多少字數來表達，了解字數與內容的關係。

至於改文時，老師可用符號批改，讓學生改正，或每次選某些語文項目精批，再與學生討論。老師亦可訓練學生互相批改或利用評改量表

來改文，培養學生自行修改文章的能力。學生謄文時，可不必抄全文，只改正犯錯的部分，這樣便不會出現學生提早收筆的情況了。

## 六、作文課的壓力

研究者訪問學生時，發覺學生對作文課有恐懼感，認爲作文對他們構成壓力。

做成學生恐懼心理的原因是作文成績要計分，作文不是一種興趣，而是一種測驗或考試。學生的作文成績低落不但會遭父母、師長責罵，不及格者更可能要重作。由於作文課時間有限，大部分學生均沒有在交文前多次重寫文章的習慣。他們視重寫文章爲一種懲罰，不能眞正了解多次修改文章的意義，亦未能於改善文章後獲得滿足感。

針對學生的寫作恐懼心理，老師可着意改善作文課的氣氛，使作文課變得輕鬆有趣。老師可設計一些不計分的寫作練習，亦可讓學生進行小組寫作，或把寫作與遊戲活動結合起來，如：劇本寫作（讓學生自編、自導、自演）、廣告創作、辦報等。上作文課時，老師可播些輕鬆的音樂，或間中與學生到校園寫作，以減輕他們的壓力。

學生的作文成績不理想，老師可提供有關的範文，並着重教授不同的寫作策略，才是治本之方。此外，亦須改變學生對重寫的觀念。

## 總結

教寫作的方法很多，要決定採用甚麼教學策略，必須先定下明確的目標，並了解學生的需要，以學生爲中心來設計教學方式。

研究者已述及小學生學習作文，須分階段進行，小學生是充滿幻想及創意的，如果不想扼殺他們的天賦，便該讓他們有發揮自我的機會。如果把表達自己思想及與人溝通視爲寫作的原動力，便當鼓勵學生暢所欲言。在表達了基本思想後，才進一步講求遣詞用字及文法的正確。固然，用字不當、文句不通也會妨礙作者表情達意，但老師應對學生的錯誤採取較寬容的態度，而非以「尋找錯誤」爲主要目標。發展學生的思維比生產文字完美的文章重要，也就是說：「人」比「產品」更重要(Rose 1984)。

另一方面，上課佔了小學生學習的大部分時間，故此課堂學習是十分重要的，老師應努力使作文課變得有趣。若不能引起學生對寫作的興趣，則遑論要改善學生的寫作技巧了。透過討論這次研究調查的結果，希望語文老師能多了解學生的心態，爲他們設計有趣而有效的寫作課。

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# 高大宜教學法在弱能兒童教學的應用
## ——教學活動簡介

劉超祺
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高大宜音樂教學法近二十年來已廣泛應用在弱能人士音樂教學及治療中。本文搜集了各種運用在教導及治療弱能兒童的高大宜音樂教學活動，以一首《動作歌》爲例，藉以闡釋高大宜教學法及從這首歌曲引伸出來的教學活動，計有歌唱、律動、聆聽、反應訓練、創作及樂器演奏等六大項，以增强弱能兒童在音樂潛能、語言能力、身體機能、溝通技能、社交技巧、人格培養等各方面的發展。

**Adapting the Kodaly Method for Teaching Music to Handicapped Children –An Outline of Activities**

The Kodaly Method has been widely used for the past twenty years in music education and therapy for handicapped children. This paper presents various Kodaly activities which have been adapted for use with handicapped children. The "Action Song" is used as an example to illustrate how such activities as singing, rhythmic dances, listening, response training, composing, and instrumental playing, etc. can be exploited to develop handicapped children's potential, language ability, body co-ordination, communicative skills, social skills as well as their personality.

高大宜教學法自1950年提倡以來，已漸在歐美的幼稚園、小學及中學普遍使用，自70年代至今，特殊學校也相繼使用，成爲音樂教學主流之一。

高大宜(Goltan Kodaly)相信音樂教育應推行到每一個人的身上，每一個人都能唱歌、讀譜，將音樂帶到人的生活中去，使人能享受從音樂帶給人的樂趣。

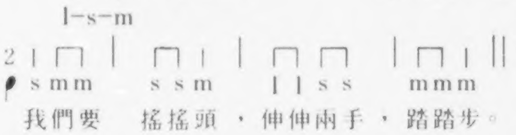
高大宜教學法是一個發展性的課程設計，它包括了音樂讀寫、練耳、律動、歌唱及聆聽。節奏感是兒童最先感受到的，高大宜提倡要通過律動來讓兒童領會節奏，他還擬訂一套簡易的節奏記譜法（如 | ⊓ ⊓⊓⊓ 等）及讀節奏法（如 ta ti ti 等）。至於學習音高方面，高大宜主張採用不固定 doh 音系統，通過唱 so–fa 音形式來學習，他還編訂唱音的次序，就是 so—mi—la—do—re—fa—ti—fi—si，並擬定一套手號來輔助。除此之外，他還設計了一、二、三、四線譜來從淺入深地教導兒童看譜，並將以上各項音樂學習揉合在唱遊中，使兒童在唱唱玩玩中學到音樂，從而達到以下目標：

1. 提高兒童對音樂的興趣；
2. 教導兒童準確地歌唱；
3. 培養兒童的音樂感及節奏和拍子的觀念；
4. 訓練兒童分辨音樂的能力；和
5. 培養兒童有「音樂的耳朵」及「內在音樂感」。

本文試圖以一首歌曲爲例，介紹高大宜教學法在歌唱、律動、聆聽、反應訓練、創作及器樂演奏等活動在弱能兒童音樂教學的運用，教師可參考以下資料，針對任教學生的特性來設計合適的教材。

## 甲、教學活動

歌曲範例《動作歌》　　劉超祺曲、詞



### Ⅰ. 歌唱活動

歌唱教學是高大宜教學法主要的教學活動，特殊學校在音樂教學中也普遍採用了此套教學法，來增强學生在音樂、語文、社交及情緒等各

方面的發展。

整體目的包括：

i)　從歌唱中認識旋律及節奏；
ii)　認識歌曲及歌詞；
iii)　增進語文能力；
iv)　建立聆聽的習慣；
v)　學習從模仿中學習；
vi)　學習輪次 (turn-taking) 及眼光接觸 (eye-contact)；
vii)　建立聽覺記憶；
viii)　增進「內在音樂感」(inner musical sense)；
ix)　從獨唱中訓練獨立自主的能力；
x)　從合唱中培養合作的精神；
xi)　表達學員的感情；
xii)　藉歌曲建立學員間及與教師的關係；
xiii)　使歌曲成為學員間及與教師的溝通橋樑；
xiv)　學習正確發聲的方法；
xv)　學習正確的呼吸方法；
xvi)　發展對歌曲的美感；
xvii)　發展欣賞歌曲的能力；
xviii)　培養社交、與人相處的技巧；
xix)　建立自信心及成功感；和
xx)　讓學員愉快地享受音樂。

活動一《歌唱》

1、活動目的：
　ⅰ）認識音高及節奏；
　ⅱ）改善語言的音調和節奏。

2、活動內容：
　教師範唱數遍，然後引領學生唱，學生重複唱多次，如可能的話，使學生能用背誦方式來唱，這個活動可以以合唱或獨唱形式進行。

3、學員人數：
　一人或以上。

4、教具：
　歌紙或歌譜。

5、應有知識及技能：
　ⅰ）基本跟節奏歌唱的能力；
　ⅱ）認詞的能力；和
　ⅲ）有合作的意念。

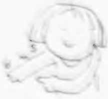
6、學員角色：
　ⅰ）聆聽歌聲；
　ⅱ）模仿教師及其他學員歌唱；和
　ⅲ）跟節拍歌唱。

7、預期效果：
　學員愉快地歌唱。

活動二《歌唱：音高練習》

1、活動目的：
　ⅰ）認識歌曲的旋律；
　ⅱ）通過音高來認識字的音調；
　ⅲ）仔細分辨音高；和
　ⅳ）訓練學員音高與動作高低的配合。

2、活動內容：
　教師帶領學員唱熟歌曲，然後做音高練習，方法列舉如下：
　ⅰ）教師跟旋律用 la 範唱，然後帶領學生唱 la；
　ⅱ）教師帶領學生唱名；
　ⅲ）教師帶領學生唱名及做手號；
　ⅳ）教師帶領學生唱名及用右手放在左臂上顯示音高，例：



　Ⅴ）教師帶領學生唱名及用右手指左手的手指以顯示音高，例：

3、學員人數：
　一人或以上。

4、教具：
　歌紙或歌譜。

5、應有知識及技能：
　ⅰ）聆聽能力；
　ⅱ）基本手部移動的能力；和
　ⅲ）基本唱歌、發聲的能力。

6、學員角色：
　ⅰ）聆聽音高；
　ⅱ）模仿教師或其他學員唱音；和
　ⅲ）模仿教師或其他學員用動作或手號來表示音高。

7、預期效果：
　ⅰ）學員愉快地做音高的活動；和
　ⅱ）學員明瞭音有高低的分別。

## Ⅱ. 律動教學

高大宜教學法中强調律動在歌唱教學中一開始便與歌曲一起施教。在特殊學校中，如可能的話，教師應採用此原則。

律動的編排應配合歌詞爲原則，動作應簡單，一方面動作要配合學員的活動機能，另一方面動作能輔助學員理解歌詞內容、節奏和音高，律動與歌唱應相輔相承。

整體目的：

律動教學配合歌唱教學進行，因此，律動教學包括歌唱教學的目的，除此之外，還有：

- Ⅰ）發展身體活動的機能及反應的能力；
- Ⅱ）增進身體各部份的協調；
- Ⅲ）發展用身體來表達自己的能力；
- Ⅳ）建立動覺的記憶；
- Ⅴ）發展動感和對動作的美的欣賞能力；
- Ⅵ）學習動作的正確姿勢；
- Ⅶ）增强學員的空間感；和
- Ⅷ）讓學員愉快地享受律動。

律動範例：

《動作歌》

| 歌詞 | 動作 |
|---|---|
| 我們要 | 手指著各位學員。 |
| 搖搖頭 | 頭部跟節奏左右搖三下。 |
| 伸伸兩手 | 兩手向外伸。 |
| 踏踏步 | 跟節奏踏三步。 |

這個活動不但可以由教師帶領，更可由學員一個人做或帶領小組、整班做。

1、活動目的：
- Ⅰ）發展四肢的活動及協調能力；
- Ⅱ）訓練動作與歌詞的配合；
- Ⅲ）培養學員建立動感；和
- Ⅳ）增進學員動作的記憶。

2、活動內容：

教師教歌唱時也同時教導律動，律動教學也與歌唱教學一樣，讓：
- Ⅰ）學員通過模仿學習；
- Ⅱ）學員整體與歌唱一同學習；
- Ⅲ）學員記憶動作；和
- Ⅳ）學員重複練習。

3、學員人數：

一人或以上。

4、教具：

歌紙或歌譜。

5、應有知識及技能：
- Ⅰ）基本身體移動的能力；
- Ⅱ）聆聽的能力；
- Ⅲ）基本唱歌、發聲的能力；和
- Ⅳ）模仿能力。

6、學員角色
- Ⅰ）歌唱；
- Ⅱ）模仿教師或其他學員做動作；和
- Ⅲ）將動作與歌詞配合。

7、預期效果：

學員愉快地一邊唱、一邊做動作。

## Ⅲ. 聆聽訓練

聆聽也是高大宜教學法一項不能缺少的教學活動，學員藉此活動來學習聆聽的技巧、記憶及辨別音樂的能力，從而增進聽覺記憶的能力及建立「內在的音樂耳朵」。

整體目的包括：
- Ⅰ）訓練聽覺記憶；
- Ⅱ）訓練聆聽的技巧及辨別聲音的能力；
- Ⅲ）訓練聆聽的專注力；
- Ⅳ）建立聆聽的習慣；
- Ⅴ）聆聽歌曲及歌詞的能力；
- Ⅵ）學習從聽覺中模仿的能力；
- Ⅶ）培訓欣賞歌曲的技巧；
- Ⅷ）發展對歌曲的美感；
- Ⅸ）培養對音樂的想像力；和
- Ⅹ）讓學員愉快地欣賞音樂。

活動一《歌曲欣賞》

當教師每次教授新歌前先要範唱數遍或播該歌曲的錄音帶，讓學員從聆聽中學習。

1、活動目的：
- Ⅰ）聆聽歌曲的旋律及歌詞；
- Ⅱ）訓練聽覺記憶；和
- Ⅲ）增進聆聽的技巧。

2、活動內容：

教師要在學生唱歌前先範唱或播放該曲的錄音帶數遍，讓學員對該曲有初步認識。

3、學員人數：

一人或以上。

4、教具：

歌曲錄音帶及錄音機（如需要）。

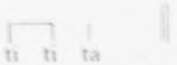
5、應有知識及技能：
　i）聆聽的能力；
　ii）專注能力；
　iii）記憶力；和
　iv）理解歌詞的能力。
6、學員角色：
　i）聆聽歌曲；
　ii）運用聽覺來記歌曲及歌詞；和
　iii）欣賞歌曲。
7、預期效果：
　學員愉快地聆聽及欣賞歌曲。

活動二《節奏辨別》

1、活動目的：
　i）從聆聽中認識歌曲的節奏；
　ii）記憶及辨別歌曲的節奏；和
　iii）加強學員的節奏感。
2、活動內容：

教師範唱歌曲或帶領學員唱熟歌曲後，可以用下列形式來進行節奏辨別的練習：

　i）教師從歌曲中選取節奏句，用手或節奏樂器打出節奏，學員聆聽後模仿教師打出節奏；
　ii）教師讀出節奏句，學員聆聽後模仿教師讀節奏，例：



　iii）教師一面讀節奏句、一面用手或節奏樂器打出節奏，學員聆聽後模仿教師做；
　iv）教師讀節奏句和/或打出節奏，學員聆聽後在樂譜中指出該節奏句；
　v）教師讀節奏句，學員聆聽後打出節奏；和
　vi）教師打節奏句，學員聆聽後讀節奏。

以上由教師負責的部份可以由學員擔任，然後由其他學員聆聽後模仿。

3、活動人數：
　一人或以上。
4、教具：
　i）歌紙或歌譜；和
　ii）常用的節奏樂器，如鼓、搖鼓、拍板、搖鈴等。
5、應有知識及技能：
　i）基本手部活動的能力；
　ii）聆聽的能力；和
　iii）基本模仿的能力。
6、學員角色：
　i）聆聽節奏；
　ii）模仿教師或其他學員讀節奏；和
　iii）模仿教師或其他同學用手或節奏樂器打節奏。
7、預期效果：
　學員愉快地聆聽節奏和讀節奏、用手或節奏樂器拍出節奏。

活動三《音高辨別》

1、活動目的：
　i）從聆聽中認識音高；和
　ii）從聆聽中建立音感。
2、活動內容：

教師範唱歌曲或帶領學員唱熟歌曲後，可以用下列形式來訓練學員辨別音高：

　i）教師唱一組音，例：
　　la—so—mi
　　學員聆聽後用動作表示，如：右手微微高舉表示la，右手放於胸前表示so，右手放在腰前表示mi；
　ii）教師用唱名方式唱一組音，學員聆聽後模仿老師唱名，
　iii）教師哼la的方式哼一段旋律，學員聆聽後模仿老師哼；和
　iv）教師用唱名或哼出一句旋律句，學員聆聽後在樂譜中指出該樂句。

以上由教師負責的部份可以由學員擔任，然後由其他學員聆聽後模仿。

3、活動人數：
　一人或以上。
4、教具：
　歌紙或樂譜。
5、應有知識及技能：
　i）聆聽能力；
　ii）發聲的能力；
　iii）基本模仿的能力；
6、學員角色：
　i）聆聽音高及旋律；和
　ii）模仿教師或其他學員唱音或唱名。
7、預期效果：
　學員愉快地聽音、旋律和模仿唱音或旋律。

活動四《歌詞辨別》

1. 活動目的：
   - i) 從聆聽中認識歌詞；和
   - ii) 增進語文認識及記憶。

2. 活動內容：

教師範唱歌曲或帶領學員唱熟歌曲後，教師在歌曲中選唱一句樂句，學員聆聽後模仿教師唱，或在樂譜中指出該選唱段，當學員熟習歌曲後，可以由學員選唱曲段，其他學員聆聽後唱。

3. 活動人數：

一人或以上。

4. 教具：

歌紙或樂譜。

5. 應有知識及技能：
   - i) 聆聽能力；
   - ii) 基本語言的能力；和
   - iii) 基本模仿的能力。

6. 學員角色：
   - i) 聆聽歌曲；和
   - ii) 模仿教師或其他學員歌唱。

7. 預期效果：

學員愉快地聆聽歌曲，並模仿教師或其他學員選唱曲段。

## Ⅳ. 反應訓練

高大宜教學法能達到訓練學員的反應的目的，主要是通過不同形式的歌唱及律動等活動。「反應訓練」藉著唱歌和律動來學習，因此它亦同時達到從歌唱和律動而來的效果，同時亦訓練到學員對事物作出即時及合理的回應。

活動一《填字遊戲》

1. 活動目的：
   - i) 發展學員記詞、記旋律的能力；
   - ii) 訓練學員合乎節奏和音高地補回歌詞；
   - iii) 增強學員的專注能力及即時的反應；和
   - iv) 增進學員獨立作出音樂反應的能力。

2. 活動內容：

教師將部份歌詞留空，然後：
   - i) 指一位學員讀唱留空的歌詞；
   - ii) 指二位或多位學員讀唱留空的歌詞；或
   - iii) 指整班讀唱留空的歌詞。

3. 學員人數：

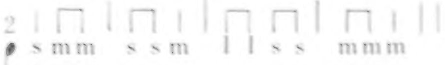
一人或以上。

4. 教具：

歌紙或歌譜。

5. 應有知識或技能：
   - i) 聆聽的能力；
   - ii) 基本唱歌、發聲的能力；和
   - iii) 熟悉歌曲。

歌曲範例：



教師：我們要　搖搖□，伸伸□□，踏踏□。
學員：　　　　　頭　　　兩手　　　步

這個活動可以伸展到由一位學員帶領其他學員或教師唱，並加上律動。

6. 學員角色：
   - i) 歌唱；和
   - ii) 對教師/學員指示作出合節奏及音高的回應。

7. 預期效果：

學員輕鬆地唱留空的歌詞。

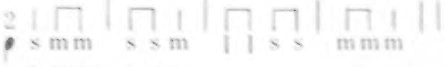
活動二《歌曲續唱》

1. 活動目的：
   - i) 訓練學員合乎節拍和音高地續唱歌曲；
   - ii) 增進學員聆聽及聽覺記憶的能力；
   - iii) 增強學員的專注力及即時反應；和
   - iv) 增進學員獨立作出音樂反應的能力。

2. 活動內容：

教師唱第一句，然後要求學生續唱。

歌曲範例：



教師：我們要　向前行。
學員：　　　　　　　　伸伸兩手，踏踏步。

這個活動可以發展到以下形式：
   - i) 一位學員唱第一句，其餘學員聆聽第一句後續唱；
   - ii) 將學員分成兩組，第一組唱第一句，聆聽第二句，第二組聆聽第一句，續唱第二句；和
   - iii) 一位學員唱第一句，另一位學員唱第二句，其他學員聆聽，然後給予評語。

3. 學員人數：

一個或以上。

4. 教具：

歌紙或歌譜。

5．應有知識和技能：
- i）聆聽的能力；
- ii）身體移動的能力；
- iii）基本唱歌、發聲的能力；和
- iv）熟悉歌曲。

6．學員角色：
- i）領唱；或
- ii）續唱。

7．預期效果：
- i）學員愉快享受活動；和
- ii）學員明白輪次 (turn-taking)。

活動三《聽令遊戲》

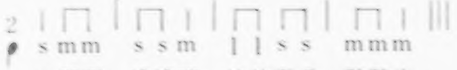
1．活動目的：
- i）訓練學員跟指示做動作；
- ii）訓練學員用歌曲來發出命令；
- iii）訓練學員遵守紀律；
- iv）增强學員的專注力及即時反應；
- v）發展學員獨立作出音樂及動作反應的能力；
- vi）爲學員建立彼此溝通的技巧；
- vii）培養學員建立正確的社交技巧；和
- viii）訓練輪次 (turn-taking) 的技巧。

2．活動內容：

教師用歌唱方式向學員發出命令，學員跟指示做動作。

活動範例：

1. 教師（指著一組或整班學員）：



你們要　搖搖頭，伸伸兩手，踏踏步。

學生（做動作）：

（頭部跟節奏左右搖三下）（伸伸兩手）（跟節奏踏三步）

教師（指著一位學員）：

2. × × ×　搖搖頭，伸伸兩手，踏踏步。

該位學員：　（跟歌詞做動作。）

這個活動可以發展到由學員發令，其他同學跟歌詞做動作，或由一組同學發令，另一組同學用動作回應。

3．學員人數：

二人或以上。

4．教具：

歌紙或歌譜。

5．應有知識和技能：
- i）守規則的意識；
- ii）聆聽的能力；
- iii）身體移動的能力；
- iv）基本唱歌及發聲的能力；和
- v）熟悉歌曲。

6．學員角色：
- i）以歌曲發令；和
- ii）跟命令做動作。

7．預期效果：
- i）學員愉快地享受活動；
- ii）學員明白活動的規則；和
- iii）學員能利用歌曲與其他學員溝通。

## V．創作活動

高大宜教學法鼓勵學員通過歌唱和律動進行創作，發展學員的創作力和思考能力。從歌唱及律動發展出來的活動少不了的就是創作——歌曲和律動的創作，創作除了可以增加學員對音樂的認識外，更可以增加學員學習音樂的興趣。

整體目的：

創作活動從歌唱及律動發展出來，因此，它能達到歌唱及律動應有的效能，除此之外，且更達致以下目的：
- i）啟發學員創作音樂及律動的技巧；
- ii）進一步發展學員語文的運用、歌唱及語言的技巧；和
- iii）進一步發展學員身體各部份的應用及協調。

活動一《歌詞創作》

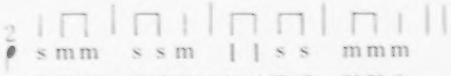
1．活動目的：
- i）訓練學員改寫歌詞的技巧；
- ii）訓練學員運用歌曲；和
- iii）增强學員以歌曲爲溝通的媒介及社交技巧。

2．活動內容：

教師通過歌唱及律動教學認識歌曲，然後引導學員改寫歌詞。

創作範例：

原曲《動作歌》



我們要　搖搖頭，伸伸兩手，踏踏步。

歌詞改寫舉例：

i）你們要搖搖頭，伸伸兩手，踏踏步。

ii）×××搖搖頭，伸伸兩手，踏踏步。

iii）×××向前行，伸伸左手，踏踏步。

iv）×××搭膊頭，伸伸右手，踏踏步。

此活動可以配以相應的律動，一面唱一面做律動，活動形式可以參考歌唱與律動教學的模式。

3．學員人數：

一人或以上。

4．教具：

i）歌紙或歌譜；和

ii）紙條與筆。

5．應有知識和技能：

i）基本唱歌及發聲的能力；

ii）認識身體動作；和

iii）熟悉原曲。

6．學員角色：

i）歌唱；

ii）做律動；和

iii）創作歌詞。

7．預期效果：

i）學員愉快地享受活動；和

ii）學員領略創作的意義及樂趣。

活動二《律動創作》

1．活動目的：

i）訓練學員創作動作的技巧；和

ii）增强學員以動作爲溝通的媒介及社交技巧。

律動範例：

| 歌曲 | 律動 |
|---|---|
| 唱原曲。 | 改編動作，如跟節奏拍手、踏腳、跟音高搖手、擺動身體等。 |
| 改編歌詞。 | （參考《歌詞創作》活動的改編歌曲）： |
| 你們 | 唱者指著其他學員。 |
| ××× | 指老師或同學。 |
| 向前行 | 跟節奏向前行三步。 |
| 伸伸左手 | 左手向上伸。 |
| 搭膊頭 | 跟節奏搭膊頭三下。 |
| 伸伸右手 | 右手向上伸。 |

3．學員人數：

一人或以上。

4．教具：

i）歌紙或歌譜；和

ii）紙條與筆。

5．應有知識和技能：

i）基本唱歌及發聲的能力；

ii）認識身體動作；

iii）基本移動身體部份的能力；和

iv）熟悉原曲。

6．學員角色：

i）歌唱；

ii）做律動；和

iii）創作或改編動作。

7．預期效果：

i）學員愉快地享受活動；和

ii）學員領略創作的意義及樂趣。

活動三《旋律創作》

1．活動目的：

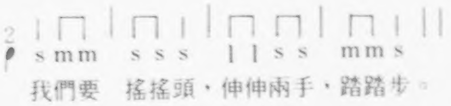
i）訓練學員改寫旋律的技巧；和

ii）增强學員的創作力及思考能力。

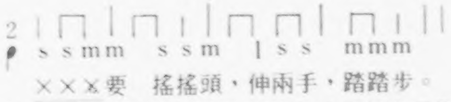
2．活動內容：

教師通過歌唱及律動教學來認識歌曲，學員唱熟後，老師引導學員改編旋律。

旋律創作範例：《音高創作》



旋律創作範例：《節奏創作》



此活動的創作程度要視乎學員的音樂技巧及認知能力，創作後的「新曲」教學可參考歌曲及律動教學。

3．學員人數：

一人或以上。

4．教具：

i）歌紙或歌譜；和

ii）紙條與筆。

5．應有知識和技能：

i）基本唱歌及發聲的能力；

ii）認識身體動作；
iii）基本移動身體的能力；
iv）認識基本音高及節奏；和
v）熟悉原曲。

6．學員角色：
i）歌唱；
ii）做律動；和
iii）創作或改編旋律。

7．預期效果：
i）學員愉快地享受活動；和
ii）學員領略創作的意義及樂趣。

## VI. 器樂活動

高大宜教學法中，器樂教樂也是重要的一項音樂活動，配合歌唱教學進行，因此器樂教學也能使學員達到從歌唱而來的功用，除此之外，還加上以下功用：

i）認識樂器及其發聲和演奏方法；
ii）從玩樂器中發展身體活動的機能及協調；
iii）認識器樂的音色、音高及節拍等音樂元素；
iv）發展社交能力；
v）建立以器樂爲學員間彼此溝通的橋樑；
vi 提高合作精神；
vii）訓練用樂器來配合歌唱及律動的技巧；和
viii）表達學員的情緒，平衡身心發展。

活動一《音條演奏》

1．活動目的：
i）使學員辨別音高及節奏；
ii）訓練學員能合節拍地敲出音；
iii）訓練學員準確地敲打音條；
iv）培養學員的節奏感及音感；
v）鍛練學員身體動作的協調；
vi）培養學員獨立的能力和自信心；和
vii）培養學員合作的精神和社交的技巧。

2．活動內容：

教師採用高大宜歌唱教學法教熟學生歌曲，然後將音條分配給學員，這首歌曲有 la、so、mi 三個音，分別分給三位學員（演奏學生的人數由樂器的數量決定），學員一面按節奏及音高準確地敲打自己所屬的音條，一面（與其他學員）唱名或唱歌。

這個活動可進一步發展至用旋律樂器來演奏，其他不演奏樂器的學員則一邊唱，一邊做律動，這個活動可以用作訓練合唱團。

3．學員人數：
三人或以上。

4．教具/樂器：
i）歌紙或歌譜；
ii）鐘音條 la、so、mi；或/和
iii）其他旋律樂器。

5．應有知識和技能：
i）熟悉原曲；
ii）唱歌；
iii）律動；和
iv）手部活動能力。

6．學員角色：
i）唱歌；
ii）做律動；和
iii）敲打樂器。

7．預期效果：
i）學員愉快享受活動；
ii）學員歡樂地與其他學員合作；和
iii）學員領略敲打樂器的趣味。

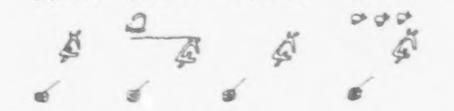
活動二《節奏樂演奏》

1．活動目的：
i）使學員辨別節奏；
ii）訓練學員合節拍地敲擊樂器；
iii）培養學員的節奏感；
iv）鍛練學員身體動作的協調；
v）培養學員獨立的能力和自信心；和
vi）培養學員合作的精神和社交的技巧。

2．活動內容：

教師先讓學員唱熟歌曲，然後將歌曲配上敲擊樂，訓練學員準確地演奏樂器，學員可以一面敲打樂器一面唱，或一部份學員敲打樂器，其餘學員合唱歌曲及做律動，如可以的話，訓練其中一位學員指揮。

節奏樂曲範例：



樂曲的配樂除因應歌曲效果外，更要考慮學員的能力，盡量以學員能勝任爲原則，像這類活動，有歌唱、律動、器樂能充份發揮學員的音樂潛能。指揮由教師訓練學員擔任，或由教師本人擔任。

3．學員人數：
  五人或以上。
4．教具/樂器：
  I）歌紙或歌譜；
  II）鼓；
  III）三角；
  IV）搖鈴；和
  V）拍板。
5．應有知識和技能：
  I）熟悉原曲；
  II）唱歌；
  III）律動；
  IV）手部活動能力；和
  V）演奏簡單敲擊樂器的能力。
6．學員角色：
  I）唱歌；
  II）做律動；和
  III）敲打樂器。
7．預期效果：
  I）學員愉快地享受活動；
  II）學員歡樂地與其他學員合作；和
  III）學員領略敲打樂器的趣味。

## 乙、總結

高大宜教學法廣泛地在特殊學校中使用，主要是一般學校也使用，特殊學校可參考一般學校的課程，因應任教的學生特性，而編訂適合的教材。另一方面，高大宜教學法在課程設計及內容上十分完備，完善的推行可使弱能兒童全面達至以下目的：

  I）發展音樂潛能；
  II）增進社交能力及人際關係技巧；
  III）增强身體活動及四肢協調效能；
  IV）增强語言及溝通能力；
  V）增進對美的觀感及欣賞能力；和
  VI）平衡情緒及發展正常人格。

由此觀之，高大宜教學法除了作爲音樂教學外，更被利用在音樂治療上，達至改善弱能人仕在社交、身體機能、語言、溝通、人格及情緒上等缺陷。

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# Making Learning Fun –
# Report on a Secondary School Science Project

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During the period 1990-92, some students in Forms 1 and 2 in a secondary school participated in a project designed to encourage personal growth and academic learning through activitity and direct experience via the senses. The Form 1 students disassembled and examined used appliances and built simple electronic circuits relevant to daily life. The Form 2 students built and operated a computer-controlled electrical train set. Electronics was used as the medium because of the relative ease of selecting teaching materials at progressive levels of difficulty; the ample opportunities for constructive and creative thinking, problem solving, and hypothesis testing through empirical experience; the possibility of immediate feedback; and the importance of electronics to students' daily life and Hong Kong's technological progress. Individuals varied greatly in their ability to benefit. The Form 1 students benefited more from passive activities like disassembling objects than from constructing them. The Form 2 students gradually developed an interest in the mastery over a system supposedly well beyond their academic level. Students' motivation and desire to learn were found to be the crucial factor in making learning fun and successful. Such project could be implemented as a weekly extra-curricular activity with no disturbance to the traditional curriculum. It has the advantages of providing an environment for students' academic and personal development, and offering job satisfaction to teachers who may have been frustrated in their attempts to attain the two educational goals simultaneously.

### 使學習有趣味：一所中學在課外活動的試驗

在1990－92年間，一所中學的中一及二學生參加了一個通過實際體驗鼓勵學生個人成長及學業發展的課外活動：中一學生的主要活動是拆散一些家用電器及駁接電路，中二學生則負責建造一個由電腦控制的玩具火車系統。這個計劃主要是通過電子線路去教授學生有關原理，因爲取材簡單，所以有較多機會引發創意，解決問題，試驗假設及明白學生的反應。在香港這個科技發達的地方，學生容易明白這些電子原理對其生活的影響。

參加學生的反應有很大差別，其學習成果主要與其動機有關。中一學生比較容易通過拆散東西去學習，而中二的學生開始明白一些遠超過其正常學科水平的系統原理運作。

這個計劃可以作爲一個每周的課外活動，讓學生從中學習及發展其個人所長，而負責老師亦可從中得到應有的滿足感。

## Introduction

Traditional classroom teaching, through which most school learning is expected to take place, is not considered much fun by students; nor is it considered conducive to personal growth by many educators. Even though the Curriculum Development Committee (CDC, 1979) introduced the discovery approach to the secondary school integrated science curriculum in the 70's, students' initiatives to learn appear to have remained the same. Extra-curricular activities, which are definitely more fun and more related to character building, is not easily perceived to be closely linked to academic learning. Attempts to integrate these two goals in open classroom experiments have often resulted in confusion and chaos. In Hong Kong, such attempts run against the additional prejudice that Chinese students somehow have less affinity for creative thinking than their overseas counterparts (Gardner, 1989). But with educational standards falling (Hong Kong Education Resource Centre, 1988), with psychological problems of young people getting more serious worldwide, and with no solution from the scholarly disciplines, in sight, the teaching profession feels the urgent need to find ways dealing with the problems. This report is about an ongoing project, which was designed, in the spirit of Piaget's philosophy on cognitive development, to facilitate Form 1 and Form 2 students in their personal and academic development through active participation and direct experience.

## Method and Result

### *Disassembling Objects*

The project began two years ago. In the first year of the project, one class of Form 1 and one class of Form 2 students were given appliances and objects to disassemble and examine in weekly sessions after school lasting one and a half hours. The instructors included two of the authors, a teacher from the school, and student volunteers from the University of Hong Kong. Each session began with one instructor (the first author of this report who is also the project initiator) disassembling an object and explaining its working principle in front of the class. This served to give the class a role model and motivating stimulus, as well as technical skills in disassembling objects with tools. Scientific theories employed in constructing the objects were explained at appropriate times during the disassembling process.

After the class demonstration, each student selected an object for disassembly and examination. The students were allowed to work individually or in groups of up to three. They were given their own screwdrivers and pliers which they had been taught to use with great caution. Basically they were left to work on their own until they had discovered the working principle of the object, at which point they would be asked to explain it to the instructors and the rest of the class. The students were encouraged to take the objects home. Several students framed the disassembled components of objects (examples included a printer head and a toaster) on styrofoam panels, with explanatory notes about the functions of each.

Quite often, especially at the beginning of the project, the students had trouble using their tools or loosening a bolt, or got stuck in the process. The instructor(s) present at the session had to decide on the optimal time to intervene. Immediate intervention would encourage dependence and deprive students of an opportunity to learn. On the other hand, if help came too late, students might become so frustrated that they might lose interest and give up learning altogether. Doing the right thing at the right time proved to be a tricky balancing act for the instructors. One always had to bear in mind the long-term learning experience and well-being of the students in making every decision.

Typically students in the first two sessions were diffident, or even fearful, in "attacking" the machines. To most students this was a novel way of learning and interacting with their environment (Some adventurous souls had the experience of being punished at home for "breaking up" things to satisfy their curiosity). But very soon they gained the confidence and skills to take things apart. After this point, students were tempted to break things up for the fun of doing so, without making attempts to understand their working principles. The instructor(s) would demand a "show and tell" then or explain the working principles to the students at appropriate times.

Some objects could more readily provide a satisfying learning experience: toasters, irons, air pumps, washing machines, bicycles. They were simple mechanical and electrical appliances that students were familiar with, and their working principles could be understood by examination with the naked eye. Electronic circuits with IC's were the most frustrating. To Form 1 students they all looked the same and their functions seemed incomprehensible and mysterious. Even transistor radios were too complicated.

After two or three months, the students reached the point of diminishing return in learning, due to the small variety of objects available, in the students' limited theoretical background, and in the disassembly technique itself being confined to the use of only primitive tools. Students realized this. A few asked the instructors to teach them "electrical waves" so that they could understand things better. Drawing from this experience, we introduced theories at appropriate times in the following year. It would be ideal if the disassembly technique could be coordinated with the integrated science curriculum and teaching schedule.

Even at its best, the disassembly technique was relatively passive. The students were not allowed to operate a/c appliances for fear of electrical shock. Many objects such as integrated circuits were beyond their scope of comprehension to operate meaningfully. They could not do hypothesis testing and polish their problem solving skills. Working with these objects was to some extent a "spectator sport". Another drawback was that the objects were given to the students. Taking them apart could enhance understanding, but was not ideal for stimulating imagination and encouraging invention. The activity by itself was mainly analytical, not constructive.

But for Form 1 students who had not yet reached the stage of formal operation and who had little background in science, this relatively passive form of learning was cosidered appropriate or even necessary before the students moved on towards more constructive activities. This view was later confirmed in the project.

On the whole, the students seemed to have enjoyed and benefited from the experience. Some voluntarily took objects home to continue working on them. Many asked intelligent questions, and provided intelligent answers. Attendance was excellent. Most asked to stay on the following year and were disappointed when informed that enrollment would be limited.

During the last session, three instructors interviewed every student in one group on the students' opinion of the project. Their response was overwhelmingly positive. But there was one surprising result. When the instructors came together at the end of the interviews to compare notes, they simultaneously expressed that what the students reacted to most was not the unusual teaching method or the learning experience per se. It was the feeling that people came all the way from Hong Kong Island to Ma On Shan to see them every week, for no apparent reason than that they cared.

The last discovery was at once a flattering and a humbling experience for the instructors. It seemed that as educ'ators, they had overlooked what young children deemed most important in their lives, the power of love and care. In retrospect, it seemed quite obvious that a child from an unhappy family would derive tremendous joy from love and care more than from manipulating inanimate objects. The recent spate of suicides among local children should leave us with no choice but to view education in the context of a child's total quality of life. In this sense this project has taken on a new and more important meaning since its inception.

### *Constructing Simple Circuits*

To complement the relatively passive nature of the disassembly technique, students were taught to construct simple but functional electronic circuits relevant to their daily life. In the second year,a group of about 10 Form 1 students were first taught by one instructor (the first author) to disassemble objects for five sessions in just over a month in the school term beginning September, 1991. This was necessary in order to familiarise them with using tools to work on objects, to motivate them, to build up their confidence, and to establish rapport between the instructor and students. Then for the rest of the school year, they were taught to construct audio amplifiers, a water and light level detector, and a power generator.

In the beginning of each session, some theories were introduced. Care was taken not to overwhelm the students, but to give them some motivating ideas and just enough background so that they knew what they were going to do. Students could get interested in a microphone amplifier that was presented as a "karaoke system". A single-stage microphone amplifier was also not difficult to build.

However, it was impossible to make students understand clearly the purpose of the project in a single session of pure theory or practice, whichever was given first. Their understanding developed gradually over many cycles of theory and practice spread out over the months. Sustaining the students' motivation and detecting and reacting to individual changes in motivation were the most critical and difficult parts of the instructor's work. The importance of a student's motivation to the teacher can be compared to that of a capital sum to a businessman. Just as every business transaction requires capital cost accumulated from past transactions and should generate capital for the future, every learning activity requires motivation to sustain it , and should itself generate motivation for future activities.

Translated into practical terms, each session should be carefully planned, not just based on what the teacher wanted to teach, but on how much motivation to learn could be generated in the students, in the long run. At the end of each session after they had put some effort into it, most students wanted some sense of satisfaction, and it was the teacher's role to maximize its occurrence. Electronic circuits, which could be easily adapted to suit various levels of difficulty and to serve some interesting function to students, were an advantage in this respect.

Basic soldering skills were mastered by most students with less difficulty than expected but they were all constantly reminded to be extremely cautious. Everyone, however, had trouble with schematic diagrams. The best method was to supplement each schematic diagram with a working model and a component layout diagram. A well organized layout and abundant supply of components would be a great advantage. We also kept a small supply of useful books on the subject but students did not seem very keen to consult them.

Almost all students succeeded in making at least one working model. This invariably gave students a tremendous sense of satisfaction and confidence to carry on. However, it seemed that Form 1 students had great trouble making circuits which were more complicated than single stage amplifiers, their second assignment. From then on, they were only given single-transistor circuits, which were within their capacity to understand, and this proved to be an excellent learning tool.

One most valuable experience for the students was the opportunity to develop a careful and realistic attitude in interacting with the environment. Constructing electronic circuits was in a sense a very cruel "teacher". Sloppiness and self-deception were immediately exposed by a non-working "product". A very common attitude among the students was wishful thinking. Even the brightest student made the mistake of believing that he had "finished" the product with no mistake committed. He was genuinely amazed to see that, when power was turned on, the transistors just went up in smoke. But soon they learned to be careful and self-critical.

Another student used to argue with the instructor about whether two points on the circuit board had been short-circuited. At first she would become very emotional and defensive when confronted with an ohmmeter. But she persevered, and seemed to have developed a more rational attitude towards knowledge. She no longer became emotional when confronted with her own mistakes, and became one of the best students in the group.

It was not difficult to see that, for the students, constructing circuits was much less fun than breaking things up. This resulted from the instructor setting the pace too fast in the beginning, creating a lot of frustrations and confusion. It seemed that Form 1 students had a limited capacity to generate complex activities by themselves. They always waited for specific instructions for the next thing to do. Maybe this was an old habit they had to unlearn. Fortunately, this was less serious among the Form 2 students.

One drawback in circuit construction as practiced here was that the assignments tended to be fragmented. Water level detectors had little to do with audio amplifiers in the real world. They were related only on the basis of electronics. Unless students were crazy about electronics per se, which was a rarity, the assignments did not coalesce to form a grand picture in the students' mind or motivational force. Their interest in the project could be carried only this far. What was needed was a grand activity, a goal that could engage the hearts and minds of young people, the pursuit of which could help actualize their full potential and which ideally was congruent with existing educational goals. This brings us to the next topic.

### *Computer-controlled Electric Train Set*

Over the course of one academic year, five self-selected Form 2 students who had gone through the disassembly project the previous year were invited to construct a computer-controlled electric train set. The final goal was to achieve complete automation similar to that in the most modern system, with computer controlled power and track switching and computer monitored sensors for detecting train movements. The overall system was designed by the projector initiator but the project was conducted in such a way that students would gradually gain mastery over the system by actually laying the wires, building the control and monitoring devices, doing maintenance work, running the system manually, and finally learning computer programming as well as designing and writing up the software to control the entire system.

On the surface, the project would appear unrealistically and unnecessarily ambitious for Form 2 students who at the start did not even know that two wires were needed, not just one, to power an electric train. But the project was considered worth trying because trains had a certain appeal to children of all ages, and for some the romance could last through ripe old age. Running a rail system was not a fragmented series of activities as in the previous two projects. Everything was linked to everything else, physically and figuratively. It was much like running a household or a business. To build and run a fully automated computerized train system would put the children, and hopefully the entire Hong Kong community, if the project could be successfully introduced into all schools here, in the forefront of science and technology. But most importantly, the project was conducted in such a way as to promote the creativity, thinking skills, overall personal growth, character building and quality of life of the students.

The strategy of accumulating and using motivation like business capital was employed. In the beginning the trains were just toys to the children. So they were just asked to run the trains like toys. But maintaining the running of an electric train set was no easy matter. Tracks not properly connected resulted in broken or short circuits. Trains broke down. Wires and bolts and nuts loosened and fell off. The initial fun actually turned out to be a lot of work. But pride kept the system running, and ambition kept it growing. In working on the system they learned to solve problems on their own, developed initiative (a serious problem previously), and gained an interest and understanding in the basics of electricity and mechanics. Work, after all, turned out to be fun too.

## Discussion

From the science educator's viewpoint, this project might just be a replication of the Nuffield project in Britain or the CDC Integrated Science Project in Hong Kong during the 70's. Since there are a lot of documents in this area (e.g. Brown, 1973), we will not go into this area here. We will instead extend our discussion from some observations made in the reported science project to wider education issues beyond it.

What we found in this project was that the motivation and desire to learn seriously affected the students' achievement in the project. In the second year of the project, there were two groups of students. The ten Form 1 students who constructed simple circuits were selected from the pool of 270 Form 1 students. They were supposed to be the brightest ten students in the form. On the other hand, the five Form 2 students who constructed the computer-controlled electric train set were to a certain extent self- selected. They were chosen by the project initiator at the end of the first year among the 40 students who participated in the project because of their eagerness to learn. These five Form 2 students were just among the average students in academic achievement in their form.

During the second year of the project, the ten Form 1 students were found to be rather passive when compared with the five Form 2 students. In fact, the five Form 2 students wanted to continue their work in the summer vacation by themselves alone even after the project had been completed and the instructors were on holiday. On the other hand, the ten Form 1 students were just following the instructors' guidance throughout the year. Though they were given extra chance to learn and were even promised to be promoted to Form 3 by the school principal after the summer vacation if their performance was outstanding, they did not seem to be making extra effort to learn when compared with the Form 2 students. This shows a sharp contrast in the motivation and desire to learn between the self-selected and other-selected students. In other words, if students can be motivated to the extent that they become self-diredted in learning, we do not need to worry about whether they will succeed or not. If we give them reasonable guidance they will succeed . On the other hand, if students are just told by others to learn, we may have to put in comparatively much more effort to make them learn.

This is precisely the dilemma facing compulsory education in recent years. In the old days, students were self-motivated to learn. Teachers did not need to make a lot of effort in teaching and the students were already doing well. However, in the present period of compulsory education, students are told to stay in the school until the age of 15 or above. Many of them have no desire to learn. Classroom teaching and learning is quite often a disaster not only to students, but to teachers also. Many governments are caught in this situation and do not know how to deal with it. From this project, we notice that motivation or desire to learn is so important that it may even outweigh intelligence. The only way to solve the dilemma in compulsory education is to let students follow the desire and motivation to learn. In other words, we should not force students to stay in the traditional schools if they do not want to. Or at least, we could reduce the compulsory education period (e.g. from 9 years to 6 years), so that students will not be forced to go to school when they step into the adolescent age of turbulence. Of course, we have to provide alternatives for these children, e.g., they could be allowed to go to work if they choose to (of course they must be put under close supervision). Those people who have not completed the nine years of universal education in their life should always be entitled to claim back the 'lost years of education' at a later time, even though they will be too old to go to a traditional school. The government should provide these people with opportunities for free education, since they have not completed the entitled package.

The above discussion may be an oversimplified solution to the present dilemma in compulsory education. But it should be worth serious consideration since many people are being affected by the mismanagement of compulsory education in Hong Kong and other countries nowadays. Not only are the 'bad' students being hurt in the schools, but the majority of the students are also seriously deprived of their right to learn because of the existence of 'bad' students in the class. We must find a way out.

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# A Survey on the Pattern of Language Use in a Tertiary Programme and Some Preliminary Observations

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In this paper, we present a survey on the pattern of language use in the part-time degree programme at the Chinese University of Hong Kong. The survey reveals that since the English language requirements for study in this programme are not demanding, students with lower standard of English can still cope with their study. Therefore they do not see any immediate need to improve their English proficiency. The implications of this phenomenon on future university language policies are also discussed.

**一項有關英語應用的調查及其初步結論**

本文介紹一項在香港中文大學進行之英語應用調查。調查結果顯示由於學科上的英語需求不高，因此一般學生認為沒有提高英語程度的需要。最後本文亦提出這種現象對未來大學英語政策的影響。

## Introduction

The use of English as a medium of instruction has always been an issue for much heated debate at secondary level. One of the arguments is about whether more English should be used as the medium of instruction and how English medium education can best be carried out; another one is about how to improve the apparently declining English proficiency of most secondary students.

Even before any agreements or solutions can be reached for these problems at secondary level, the same debate seems to have spread to tertiary level. Professor Kao, Vice-Chancellor of the Chinese University of Hong Kong, is concerned about the fact that not enough English is being used at the university. He said in an interview that "the university must have more of its lectures delivered in English if it really wanted to be a bilingual university .... 80% of its degree courses used English textbooks, but about 80% of its lectures were conducted in Chinese". At the same time, he is also aware that the majority of the students do not have the level of bilingual skills as desired; but he affirmed that "the university is trying to address the problem so that we can train our students to meet the minimum bilingual requirements" (S.C.M.P., 6.2.1989).

It is believed that the view of Professor Kao is shared by colleagues of other tertiary institutions. For example, Professor Harris, former Head of the English Department of the University of Hong Kong, has on more than one occasion expressed his concern over the poor English of university students and the importance of maintaining at least one English-medium university of international standing in the territory (S.C.M.P., 13.10.1990, 6.3.1991).

It is admirable that educationists at the tertiary level are ready to face the fact and offer solutions. However, if the same problem has been existing for years at secondary level and no satisfactory answers can yet be found, it will be difficult to imagine that there can be any breakthrough in tackling the same problems in tertiary education, which after all shares similar linguistic environments in the overall societal context as secondary education[1].

Nevertheless, before any conclusion can be drawn, we must first have a thorough understanding of the situation. So, in this paper, we will take a closer look at the linguistic environment in tertiary education by presenting a survey on the pattern of language use in one tertiary institution. Because of the limitation of resources and manpower, we have restricted our survey on just one programme in one tertiary institution, namely, the part-time degree programme (PDP) at the Chinese University of Hong Kong. It is hoped that with the data obtained, we are in a better position to offer more realistic suggestions.

## Method of Study

The first part of the survey is carried out in the form of questionnaire survey and our sample population includes staff and students of seven departments/faculties running part-time degree programmes. These seven programmmes are: Business Administration (BAP), Social Work (SWK), Physical Education (PHE), Primary Education (EDD), Mathematics and Statistics (MSP), Biology and Chemistry (BCP), and Music (MUP). A total of 808 student questionnaires and 69 teacher questionnaires were distributed in December, 1991. As for the second part of the survey, it took the form of a follow-up interview of those teacher respondents who volunteered to take part. The interview was carried out in February, 1992.

## Results of the Questionnaire Survey[2]

422 student questionnaires and 42 teacher questionnaires (a return rate of 52% and 71% respective-

ly) were received. In the survey, respondents were asked questions concerning: 1) language of instruction, 2) perceived importance of English, 3) assessment of language proficiency, 4) English needs for study and work and 5) the need for further English language instruction. From the response of both teachers and students, it was found that:

1. Both English and Chinese are used in the PDP courses for different purposes. *More English is used in the written mode*, for reading, writing and examination purposes, while *more Chinese is used in the spoken mode*, for teaching and discussion purposes (Table 1).

Table 1: Language of instruction in PDP courses

| | student | teacher |
|---|---|---|
| teaching | 3.0973 | 3.7250 |
| reading | 1.6886 | 1.6500 |
| writing | 2.1808 | 1.9500 |
| discussion | 3.7734 | 4.1250 |
| examination | 1.9238 | 1.8919 |

*scale:*
completely in English 1 2 3 4 5 completely in Chinese

2. *Both teacher and student respondents feel that English is very important for both study and work.* Not surprisingly, reading and writing skills rank higher in importance because all reading, writing assignments and examinations are done in English. On the other hand, since teaching and discussion are mainly done in Chinese, both listening and speaking skills are ranked lower in importance (Tables 2 & 3).

Table 2: Perceived importance of English for students

| | student | teacher |
|---|---|---|
| for study | 1.8122 | 1.9231 |
| for work | 1.9733 | 2.1282 |
| for career prospect | 1.7251 | N/A |

*scale:*
most important 1 2 3 4 5 least important

Table 3: Perceived importance of 6 English skills for students for study

| | student | teacher |
|---|---|---|
| speaking | 2.3869 | 2.8462 |
| listening | 1.9562 | 2.4103 |
| reading | 1.5109 | 1.4359 |
| writing | 1.6180 | 1.8462 |
| grammar | 1.9707 | 2.2308 |
| vocabulary | 1.8509 | 2.1795 |

*scale:*
most important 1 2 3 4 5 least important

Table 4: Perceived students' English proficiency

| | students | teacher |
|---|---|---|
| speaking | 3.1942 | 3.6667 |
| listening | 3.0073 | 2.9394 |
| reading | 2.8131 | 2.8611 |
| writing | 3.2233 | 3.4595 |
| grammar | 3.1723 | 3.4595 |
| vocabulary | 3.4345 | 3.5946 |

*scale:*
very good 1 2 3 4 5 very weak

3. *The English proficiency of the students assessed by themselves and the teachers is slightly below average in most skills*, particularly in the productive skills, namely, writing and speaking skills (Table 4).

4. Having claimed that their English proficiency is below average, *student respondents see a great need to improve their English in all skills*. This is the same for the teacher respondents. Although the students' reading ability is regarded generally better than all other skills, both teacher and student respondents still give a very high priority to improving reading skills. Writing also receives high priority but speaking and listening skills receive a relatively low ranking in the perceived need for improvement (Table 5).

Table 5: Perceived need to improve English skills

| | teacher | student |
|---|---|---|
| speaking | 2.5981 | 2.1643 |
| listening | 2.4324 | 2.3248 |
| reading | 1.7405 | 1.9422 |
| writing | 2.1538 | 1.9439 |
| grammar | 2.1538 | 2.0652 |
| vocabulary | 2.0789 | 1.9300 |

*scale:*
most necessary 1 2 3 4 5 least necessary

## Results of the Interview

Altogether 11 teachers, 3 of whom expatriates, from 7 departments were interviewed. The interviews focused on the nature of the tasks students need to perform in English (such as the type of reading assignments, discussion tasks, writing assignments), the amount and frequency of such tasks and students' performance in them. The results of the interview not only confirm what we have discovered in the questionnaire survey but also provide many interesting ideas which prove to be revealing.

On the question of medium of instruction, most respondents admitted that there is a growing trend for more Chinese to be used. This is especially true in departments where the faculty is made up mainly of local staff. Besides, the pattern of language use in some departments depends greatly on the language habits of one or two teachers. A respondent from the BCP Programme admitted that he and another outgoing colleague were the only two in the department who used English as the medium of instruction. He also predicted that more new colleagues would be using Chinese as the medium of teaching.

As for the expatriate teachers, although they can only use English to teach, they usually allow discussions to be conducted in Chinese. All our expatriate respondents agreed that students are more involved and eager to take part if they are allowed to use Chinese.

On the question of reading assignment, most of our respondents said that they assign reading materials mainly from textbooks, only occasionally supplemented with journal articles. A few of our respondents explained that they rarely assign reading materials from reference journal because students tend to find academic articles much more difficult to understand in terms of both language and organization. On the contrary, textbooks are easier to understand because they not only use more simple English but also contain many useful studying hints.

Besides, students who may have difficulty with the language can also find other ways to circumvent their reading problem. For example, a respondent from the Education Faculty told us that many of her students, instead of reading English articles from the latest reference journals, would rather read translated works in Chinese although they are well aware that information in those translated works is out-dated.

As a result, although most assigned readings are in English, so far our respondents have not received any complaints from students concerning difficulty in reading the assignments. However, some of our respondents did express worry about the limited exposure students have because of the imbalance in the choice of reading materials.

Finally, on the question of written assignment, most respondents, except the expatriates, allow their students to write assignments or examinations in either English or Chinese. When English is required, our respondents observed that although most students manage to get their message across, they make quite a lot of errors in language. But most respondents did not consider it their responsibility to deal with such language problems. A respondent from the Biology Department admitted that the laboratory reports, usually written in English, are graded by teaching assistants, usually postgraduate students, whose language proficiency may not be any better than the students'. Samples of students' written reports shown to us confirmed that most language errors go undetected by the teaching assistants.

## Discussion and Implication

We believe that the present pattern of language use at the part-time degree programme as revealed in the survey has great implication on future university policies aimed at increasing the use of English in lectures and improving the efficiency of English language teaching.

From our questionnaire survey, it was observed that most teacher respondents consider the English proficiency of their students to be below average in most skills (Table 4). In order not to allow this factor to hinder their teaching, they have to adapt their teaching method to the situation. For example, they switch to using more Chinese as the medium of instruction; they allow their students to use Chinese in the discussion; when they correct students' essays, they tend to ignore the language problems and concentrate only on the content; when they assign reading materials, they make sure that the language of the texts is not beyond the proficiency level of the students; some teachers even prepare detailed lecture notes for the students to help them to understand the lectures. We believe that unless teachers can be convinced of the improved language proficiency of their students, they are not likely to switch back to a greater use of English.

The survey results also show that most student respondents are aware of the importance of English, are not satisfied with their own proficiency and are willing to improve it. However, it is also interesting to note how they give priority to different skills. Since most reading and writing in the PDP programme are done in English while most speaking and listening are done in Chinese, students perceive the first two skills as being more important (table 3) and hence show greater willingness to improve them (Table 5). This demonstrates very clearly that students' motivation to learn English is highly instrumental. However, from the teacher interview described above, it seems that it is difficult to tap even this instrumental motivation because the perceived needs of the students turn out to be very different from the actual needs. Since many of our teacher respondents have lowered the language requirements in their courses to suit the language proficiency of the students, most students will not experience any great difficulties in their study despite their weakness in English. Therefore, it is hard to convince them to take their English language courses seriously by saying that otherwise, they will not be able to deal with their university study. It seems unrealistic to expect students to put English learning on their first priority when they have to meet deadlines for projects, presentation and examinations in their major subjects.

Such facts of reality pose a great challenge to any policies aimed at improving the efficiency of English language teaching. Firstly, English teachers compete unfavourably with the other major subject teachers for the students' study time; secondly, they cannot convince the students of the urgency to improve their English in order to cope with their university study.

## Conclusion

In this paper, we have presented a survey on the pattern of language use at a tertiary programme in the Chinese University of Hong Kong. We have observed that any language policies aimed at changing this pattern, for example, increasing the use of English in the lectures and improving the efficiency of English language teaching, will face great difficulties. The present vicious circle where on the one hand, teachers lower their requirements because of the students' poor language proficiency and on the other hand, students do not see any urgent need in improving their English because of the low requirement of the subject teachers can only be broken through strong determination on the part of the policy makers.

Although our survey is limited to just one particular tertiary programme, we believe that the picture it reveals should have relevance to other tertiary programs to a greater or lesser extent. In fact, preliminary analysis of another survey on the use of English for study at the full-time degree programme of the same university yields similar results (Chase, forthcoming). It is hoped that more such research can be carried out in the other tertiary institutions so that we can have a better picture of the use of language at the tertiary level.

## Notes

[1] It is assumed that readers have some background knowledge of the argument on the problem of medium of instruction and declining language standard in the secondary schools.

[2] A detailed report of the questionnaire survey is available in Lee, C, F. Yau & J. Yau (1992).

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# Writing of a New Kind and a New Mind — a Class Newsletter as a Language Learning Strategy for Secondary Schools in Hong Kong.

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Getting students excited about writing is the strongest point of publishing a class newsletter for a real audience. A newsletter of the class is a writing project of the students, by the students and for the students.

The aim of this paper is to explore the idea with all the English teachers of Hong Kong. This exciting language learning strategy has made a difference in the attitude of my students as EL2 learners and in the effectiveness of myself as an EL2 writing instructor. The paper presents the actual experience of five of my classes in publishing their newsletters. It covers, in particular, the practicalities and implementation procedures. It also discusses the differences in practice and in assumptions between traditional composition classes and the new writing-publishing project.

The implication of this project is fourfold. First, there is a change in the target audience. Second, the learning approach is a student-centred one. Third, the writing is purposeful. Fourth, the project is a powerful vehicle for opening up new horizons in the students. What enriches its educational value is the emergence of a new sense of learner responsibility. Such a change in learning attitude towards English is the birth of a new way of thinking. A newsletter of the class, in this sense, is definitely writing of a new kind and a new mind.

**英文「班訊」**

「班訊」是一種新方法、新思維・用作英文寫作的教學。顧名思義・「班訊」即班內、班外的傳訊・以出版形式・由學生策劃・組織刊登自己的英文習作・爲同學創造一個有真實觀衆的舞台。

容我與老師們分享親身的經驗。「班訊」是一種靈活的方法・啓發香港學生・改變他們對英語學習的態度・並且幫助英文老師增強教學效益。我曾經在兩年之內・在五班高中同學之中・推行了這種「班訊」寫作活動・並將具體執行的細節記錄下來・把它與傳統的課堂英文寫作・作一比較分析。「班訊」寫作活動・改變了學生寫作的對象、學習過程、寫作目的・進入一種由老師當顧問・同學自己學習・羣體互相刺激的學習新關係。

## Introduction

This paper, which presents a new project idea, is written primarily for a specific audience — the teachers of English as a second language (EL2 teachers) in the secondary schools of Hong Kong. The general aim is to share with other teachers some ideas, experience and results of my teaching and research, and the pain of sleepless nights of composition marking and the sweetest joy of helping students with their writing. The specific aim is to present aviable, field-tested language learning strategy[1] that has made a difference in the attitude of my students as EL2 learners and in the effectiveness of myself as an ESL writing instructor. This strategy, which is particularly suitable for Form 4 to Form 7 students, involves the EL2 teacher in helping their students to launch a semester-long project of publishing a class newsletter so that they develop a new attitude towards English and become better prepared to make bigger gains by

(a) assuming more personal responsibility for their own language learning

(b) developing a positive thinking that writing is interesting, possible and worthwhile

(c) becoming more proficient learners and users of English with a more practised eye and a more responsive mind.

## Need for a Fresh Look at Our Composition Classes

As an English teacher in a secondary school, I have been weighed down by the marking load of my composition classes. I have to struggle with three classes of 40 students each and 120 essays to mark every other week. I have noticed how students moan and groan when I set composition assignments. I sometimes feel that I am banging my head against a wall of apathy. There is a great need for a fresh look at our composition classes. I have been asking myself:

(a) Is there writing with a purpose in your classes other than that demanded by the bureaucracy?

(b) Do my students really use to communication with a real audiences?

(c) Is there any constructive interaction among students themselves?

My answers to these questions are very often negative. Clearly, a new strategy is in order, not necessarily to replace all the old ones, but to complement them. In the next section, I shall examine some of the inadequacies of the old-fashioned, traditional practice of composition writing in class or at home, and then, in later sections, I shall present the newsletter idea and its strength.

## Traditional Practice

Traditionally, the teachers are often expected to assign a composition topic, set word limits, dictate language form and format, spot language errors and appoint themselves as the only reader and marker. They have the unpleasant task of spending most of their time and energy on correcting students' grammatical mistakes. The focus of that time and energy is on accuracy, forms and surface structures. There is, in fact, little time left, if any, for exploration of other writing matters — ideas, content, purpose, organization and design. There is little interaction between teachers and students, let alone discussions, feedback and cross-fertilization of ideas among students themselves.

## A Class Newsletter: A new project

> "It takes better teachers to focus on the learner."
> (Strevens, 1982)

A newsletter of the class is different from the traditional composition. A self-made publication of students' articles, it is student-oriented. Students can choose their own topics, set their own word limits, select their own modes of expression, determine the tone, the theme and format of their writing. The teacher plays the happy role of an advisor. The focus is on clarity of ideas, fluency, content and message. There is a great potential for interaction and excitement among the students themselves. They interact with each other by contributing to the newsletter of their own class. They organize, discuss, edit, design, proofread, publish and read their own works. There are some new and powerful elements at work, which will be examined in the next section.

## Four New Elements of the Project

What makes the newsletter new to me and my Form 4 and Form 6 students are:

(1) the target readers;
(2) the learning approach;
(3) the common goals;
(4) the unexpected gains.

In the first place, there are real readers. They are fellow classmates who can directly give the authors immediate feedback and offer suggestions for revision. Students do not write to the teacher alone or just to 'please the teacher'. They write to communicate with their fellow students and to express themselves.

Second, there is co-operative peer group learning. The project is group-directed. The editorial team is organized by the students themselves. They are encouraged to set their own rules, divide the work-load and work together as a team. Every member has his part to play and takes responsibility for the outcome of the joint-venture. Together they face the audience.

Third, the students common goals. They set out to get the newsletter published. They write to share information about their feelings, ideas and experiences and to device entertainment for themselves. In their own words, they provide "info-tainment" — they inform and entertain.

## Birth of a New Mind

There are sometimes valuable gains in the process of producing the newsletter. As the process readily lends itself to natural and genuine communication, it helps students develop skills and interest in writing. The excitement about writing and the sense of achievement generated are two of the strong points of the project. What is more, the project also helps students to acquire organizing editing, and publishing skills. These are bonuses for the students and a joy for the teacher.

As an EL2 teacher, I am very happy to see my students taking part in the publication of a class newsletter and learning how to use the English language in meaningful, functional and communicative ways. I have been overjoyed to witness the birth and growth, of a new attitude and a new way of thinking, that is, a new mind. Some students begin to take responsibility in learning and initiative to educate themselves. The English language has become real to them. It has become a 'verb' rather than a 'noun'. In putting the newsletter together, they write, read, listen and talk; they learn English through using it rather than just learning a body of grammatical knowledge. In this sense, a class newsletter becomes a regular and practical self-directed try-out of *writing by the students, of the students and for the students*. This is definitely, to my mind, writing of a new kind and a new mind.

## Learner Responsibility and New Roles

A central part of the new mind which emerges is learner independence or learning responsibility. Mr. Rex King, Senior Subject Officer of the Hong Kong Examination Authority once told an audience of secondary school students, "If you think that English is just the business of your English teacher, then you have *no hope* of ever getting a credit or pass in the HKCEE"[2]. Naiman et al. (1978) in their study on the characteristics of good language learners, found that the most successful language learning strategies are connected with assuming responsibility for one's own learning". Seen in this light, students who develop the new mind are more likely to succeed in learning the language and in getting better examination results than those who do not.

A natural growth of the new mind is a new relationship between the teacher and the students. Both take on new roles. As the teacher cannot learn for the students and the students grow with increasing learner responsibility, the traditional roles need to change. (Stevick,1976) The teacher, who is traditionally a paternal, assertive dispenser of knowledge and whose role fosters dependence in learning, has to assume a new fraternal and advisory role as resource person or consultant who aims at developing independence in learning in the students.

The student is to change from being a passive, submissive learner who is totally teacher-dependent to being an active, self-directed learner who assumes responsibilty for his own learning.

EL2 projects such as publishing a newsletter of the class certainly help to facilitate the change.

## Implementation Strategies and the 5-Step Procedure

The next question is how to get the newsletter published if we turn from theoretical consideration of values and gains to the nitty-gritty of the publishing project. There are details to note: time, equipment, manpower organization, method and money (5Ms). The project takes a semester (about 12-16 weeks). During that period of time, students work together, discuss, write and rewrite articles for their newsletter. The actual production only takes a couple of weeks and can be done during the school holidays at Christmas, Chinese New Year or Easter.

The equipment needed is one or two computers, (many students already possess PCs. — get them involved), a printer, word-processing software graphic software for illustrations, different fonts (typestyles and sizes) and access to photocopying stores (10-20 cents per page of A4 size paper). Fluitt-Dupuy (1989) summarizes the manpower organization, method and money in five steps:

1. Planning the Newsletter
2. Writing and collecting articles
3. Selecting articles
4. Editing
5. Layout, printing and distribution.

### *1. Planning the Newsletter*

In the first week of the semester, the teacher explains the project and announces the various posts of the editorial team. The size of the editorial team can vary according to the class size. The idea is to involve as many students as possible. But all the jobs will be associated with the staff positions as follows:

Editor-in-chief (preferably a responsible student with fewer extracurricular commitments)
Assistant editors (two students)
Layout editor and assistants
Art designer and assistants
Proofreaders (at least two students)
Computer operators (at least two students)
Collector
Treasurer
Photocopying manager and assistants
Interviewers
Reporters
Researchers

In an intermediate level class, e.g., a Form 4 class, the editorial staff could be volunteers or could be elected or assigned. For advanced learners, a better strategy would be to get the students to compete for the positions. Within the first three weeks of the semester, they write to apply for one of the staff positions. The teacher reviews their application letters and their other writing samples or displays of their artwork and portfolios, and assigns the positions.

The editorial staff then meet and determine their target audience, the theme, the tone, the format and the purpose of their newsletter. A modest target audience for a start would be the class itself, but the distribution could be expanded later to other classes, teachers, family and friends.

### *2. Writing and Collecting Articles*

All writing assignments are potential submissions to the newsletter once the project begins. The topics of the articles are sometimes assigned and sometimes free. Let students brainstorm topics and let ideas mushroom. The creativity of students, once unfettered, is amazing. In the newsletter of my Form 4 and Form 6 classes, I have seen interviews with new-comers and new teachers, reports on important school events, comments on current issues and public affairs, feature articles on students' favourite sports, extracurricular activities and other matters of concern to them. I encourage students to experiment with different types of writing like narrative, descriptive, expository, analytical, argumentative, persuasive, satirical and comic pieces. I allow plenty of small-group discussions and promoted feedback from peers. I set deadline late in the term, usually before long holidays. I have the collector help me to make sure that each student submit two articles, the best work of the term. That gives the editors plenty of articles to select from and time to choose the quality ones.

### *3. Selecting Articles*

One possible set of selection criteria, as a guide for students' reference, is based on four basic communication principles (Hamp-Lyons, 1987, p.70):

- *The Clarity principle*
  Make everything clear to the reader but do not give more information than is necessary.
- *The Reality principle*
  Assume that your reader has a knowledge of the world and does not have to be told everything.
- *The Relevance principle*
  Keep to your topic and your purpose of writing.

- *The Honesty principle*
  Only write that for which you have evidence.

But perhaps a more enlightening approach is to let students set up their own selection criteria. The teacher may find it more revealing to know what principles the students use in practice — popularity of the author? the author's relationship with the editors? fun elements? learning value? or sensational topics? Let the editorial team work out their own set of selection criteria and, where necessary, the teacher can help them with their problems wuch as being too restricted or too loose in selecting articles. The team has to learn to strike a balance between the two.

A simple numbering system proposed by Fluitt-Dupuy (1989) can help to streamline the selection process:

1 = definite inclusion, highly recommended
2 = possible inclusion with revision
3 = rejection, not recommended

It is necessary for the editorial board to screen all the articles and choose better ones. The assistant editors can make recommendations. But the final decision rests with the editor-in-chief in consultation with the teacher. Preferably, the teacher stays in the background, lets the student editors do their job and acts only as a advisor. The teacher stands in only when he or she must censor unsuitable materials such as indiscreet or unfounded remarks against others and unnecessary complaints against the school canteen.

### 4. *Editing*

Once selected, the articles will be ready for the final polishing. The editorial board announces the selections and returns originals to the authors for revision. Students work in pairs and help each other with proofreading, feedback, suggestions and correction. All students are encouraged to rewrite in order to get better results. It is a good practice for teachers to ensure rewriting and to praise revised work in which the author has demonstrated efforts to improve the content and the language. Better organization and fewer mistakes mean higher esteem. That gives incentives to students and reinforces the good sense that with writing, as with human nature, there is always room for improvement.

Throughout the editing process, there should be plenty of room for peer discussion, interaction and revision. Authors write and rewrite to clarify ideas, to streamline sentences, to sharpen their focus on the audience and the purpose of their writing. Computers help a lot to make the editing much faster and easier.

In the final editing stage, the students must realize how the general readers (not just the teacher) are intolerant of errors in print. At least two students proofread each article and the author makes corrections. The teacher then proofreads each article himself before the computer operators print out all the final drafts in neat columns for the layout, printing and distribution.

### 5. *Layout, Printing and Distribution*

The layout editor and the art designer work closely together. They design the cover of the newsletter, the table of contents, the headings and sub-headings. They cut and paste the articles and determine how they appear on the page. The illustrations, the graphics, decorative drawings and the artistic lettering can enhance the page and make it more attractive. In short, careful layout is an attractive and investment in the success of the newsletter.

The master copy is then presented to the photocopying manager and the teacher for the final touches. Then it is ready for the photocopying store. A 20-page newsletter takes only five A-4 size papers printed on both sides and folded into half-sizes (8" × 6"). The photocopying expenses are well under HK$100 for an audience of 40. The bill could be footed by the membership fees of the Class Council.

Next, the students sort out the pages, fold and staple them together. Distribution is fun for the students. They love to show off their "masterpiece" and are proud of the results of their hard work.

## Conclusions

In publishing the class newsletter, my students have not only discovered the writing process, but also the world of publishing for a real audience. They have helped me to make the composition class meaningful, interesting, and worthwhile. For my part, I have discovered that EL2 *does* work under certain conditions, as Earl Stevick (1990) puts it perceptively:

> When students feel good about their work and about themselves, they will learn better than they are not. (Stevick, 1990, p.143)
>
> Any method that does not require serious and sometimes onerous efforts from learners will be ineffective. (Stevick, 1990, p.143)
> (In my experience, that is, no commitment, no improvement.)

A class newsletter, I have found, is a powerful language learning strategy, pregnant with possibilities, viable and productive in the secondary schools of Hong Kong. Done well, it could motivate students tremendously, generate excitement about writing and a spirit of camaraderie, stimulate exercise of collective wisdom and produce an ideal learning environment that combines expert help and direction by the teacher, self-access learning and group-directed learning. In our project, I have seen the growth of learner independence and learning responsibility. I have seen new horizons in the working out of a new relationship between the teacher and the students. In a word, I have witnessed the birth of a new mind in the students and in myself. This is the most rewarding thing that has made all the pains and labour worthwhile.

## Notes

[1] An excellent work on the subject of language learning strategies is Rebecca L. (1990). Based on current research, it provides EL2 and Foreign Language teachers with practical recommendations for developing their students' second language learning strategies.

[2] Mr. Rex King delivered the talk on "Pleassir How Can I Improve My English" on 18th May, 1992 during the English Week of Tang King Po School.

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# Ensuring Greater Success in Peer Feedback-giving: An Experience with a Writing Course

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This paper examines the problems that the students experienced in the peer feedback-giving stage of writing in a course on report writing at the tertiary level in Hong Kong. Reasons for the problems are identified and solutions to these problems are suggested.

**學生互評文稿的改進：一個寫作課程的經驗**

本文探討在香港一大專院校「研究報告寫作班」的學生在互相評閱初稿時所遇到的困難及其原因，並提出解決辦法。

## Introduction

"Feedback" is defined by Keh (1990) as "input from a reader to a writer with the effect of providing information to the writer for revision. It is the comments, questions and suggestions a reader gives a writer to produce reader-based prose". Peer-feedback means the feedback given to the students by their classmates. "Peer-feedback giving" in this paper includes the notions of "peer response, peer editing, peer critiquing, peer evaluation" (Keh, 1990) and "peer review" (Mangelsdorf, 1992).

According to Mittan (1989), as cited by Mangelsdorf (1992), peer review is useful because it "provides students with an authentic audience; increases students' motivation for writing; enables students to receive different views on their writing; helps students learn to read critically their own writing; assists students in gaining confidence in their writing" and "allows students to use oral language skills". Johnson (1990) mentions that the practice of using polite strategies to give feedback is an important aspect of language acquisition.

However, it has also been cited in the literature that problems are encountered in the implementation of the peer-feedback giving process. While most students in Mangelsdorf's study (1992) comment that peer review helps them improve the content and organization of their writing during the drafting process, some students state the following as problems with their peer review: "limitations of student as critics", "students' lack of trust in their peers' reports to their texts", "student apathy" and "student ignorance". She also reports that her students who come from Asian cultural background, where teacher-centred classrooms are stressed, express negative views of peer review.

Based on the opinions of some Hong Kong students who share the views of the Asian students in Mangelsdorf's study, this paper further examines the difficulties encountered at the peer feedback-giving stage of the writing process in a short report writing course in the field of computer studies in the first year at the tertiary level in Hong Kong. The problems as raised by the students in their course evaluation questionnaires are discussed. Suggestions are also given concerning how the problems may be solved.

## The Course

A short report writing course in the field of Computer Studies was taught to four groups of first year students at the tertiary level in Hong Kong. The students were first given guidance on how to write a report before they formed groups to work on a group report. Each group was given a list of topics to choose from. Then, the members of each group worked on the outline and the first draft of the group report together. When the first draft was completed, the groups exchanged their reports. Each group gave feedback on another group's report based on the evaluation guideline given by the teacher. The guideline contained guiding questions to help them think about how to improve the content and organization of the paper only. Each group also submitted another copy of the first draft of their group report to the teacher. The teacher gave feedback on this draft when the students were giving each other peer feedback. The teacher did not give evaluative comments but just reacted to the paper as a reader. Then, students revised their first draft based on the comments from the teacher and their peers and submitted the final draft to the teacher for assessment.

In general, the students reacted positively to the course. However, some of them revealed that they disliked the activity of giving peer-feedback for three main reasons. They thought that it was unnecessary, embarrassing and difficult.

## Problems

The responses of these students seemed to reflect that the main problems lay in the method of implementation of this stage of the writing process. Two mistakes had been made. One was that the teacher and peer feedback were given at the same time giving students the wrong impression that peer response was unnecessary. The second was that the students had not been adequately prepared for the peer feedback-giving process. The two mistakes were made in the implementation of the activity because the educational background and beliefs of the students had not been taken into consideration carefully enough. To understand why some students had such attitudes towards peer feedback-giving, the educational background of the students must be examined first.

### *Educational background of the students*

Most students in this course have not been exposed to the peer-feedback giving process in writing before. When they were in secondary schools, in most writing classes, they were usually given a writing topic to work on individually. They could write outlines or rough drafts themselves but they often only needed to hand in the final draft to the teacher for assessment at the end of the lesson. They were trained to write in this way because they needed to be prepared for public examinations. In Hong Kong, the education system is examination-oriented. Academic achievement of the students is mainly determined by examination results. Because the examination results determine the fate of the students, they wish to be able to produce a presentable and correct piece of writing at one go. For the same reason, most Hong Kong classrooms often tend to be teacher-centred. Most teachers are concerned with rushing the students through the whole syllabus to prepare them for examinations. The teacher often becomes the figure of authority, who stands in front of the class, teaches and explains most of the time.

Besides, all the students in this course are Chinese residents of Hong Kong which has been a British colony since 1841. Though they are strongly influenced by the Western culture, most of their basic attitudes towards the teacher and their classmates are still hooked to the Chinese traditional belief. The traditional kind of education that the children have received tend to make most of them "comply with the example of authorities" and "more likely to adopt group values" (Bond 1991). The teacher is often expected to be the highly respectable authority whose way should be the right and best way for the students to follow. Peers are members of the group the values of which they often respect and adopt as far as possible.

### *The problems in the process of giving peer feedback*

It seemed that the attitude about teaching and learning that most students had adopted from their educational background was an important factor that caused difficulty in their adaptation to the peer feedback process as implemented in this course when they were exposed to it for the first time. The students were faced with two problems.

The first problem arose when both the teacher and their classmates gave the students feedback on their first draft at the same time. Most of them felt a tendency to rely more on the feedback given by the teacher than that given by their peers. In extreme cases, they even ignored the comments given by their classmates. Some students, for example, wrote in their course evaluation questionnaires that no one could give better comments than the teacher. Only the teacher's comments were enough. They would be confused if too many different comments were received. Some students said that they were not professionals and thus were not qualified to give feedback. To these students, classmates were peers of equal standing. Since they were of equal rank, they thought that they were not qualified to give comments to their peers. Several students commented that it was embarrassing to do so because they should respect each other and as far as possible, try not to comment on each other's work.

It is not difficult to understand why students think in this way when the educational beliefs of the students are taken into consideration. Since most students are brought up to believe that the teacher is the respectable authority whom they should look up to and classmates are only peers whom they should care for and protect, the teacher's comment or judgement is often regarded as the final authority. If both the teacher and their peers give them feedback at the same time, most of them usually do not pay much attention to their peers' feedback. Only the teacher's comment is regarded as the final authority to which most of them often faithfully submit. In such a situation, the peer feedback was viewed as being "unnecessary" and "embarrassing" by this group of students.

The second problem arose when they actually had to give feedback to their peers. Some students felt that it was difficult to do so because they did not know how to give proper, accurate and sufficient feedback. Some said that they particularly had problems with their grammar because their own English standard was low. They did not know how to help their classmates with grammar.

These students had in fact been told that they should only focus on the content and organization of the report but not the language when they gave peer feedback. They had also been given guiding questions to help them think about how to comment on the content and organization of the report. Unexpectedly, they still said they did not know how to give feedback. It was also surprising that their attention was still focused on the language aspect of the paper.

It seems that the problem may again be related to the educational background of the students. When they were in secondary schools, most of their teachers usually only gave them evaluative comments when they marked their English compositions. Most teachers also tended to focus on the students' grammatical errors in their marking (Keh, 1990: Tsang & Wong, 1992). Since most students have a tendency to model on how they think a teacher should give feedback, when they are asked to give feedback, even though they are not supposed to pass any judgement on each other, a majority of them instinctively give evaluative comments on each other's performance instead of suggestions to help revision. Naturally, most of them tend to focus on their classmates' grammatical errors as well. Some feel that they lack the ability to make appropriate judgement on the linguistic accuracy or appropriacy of the language used by their classmates because English is not their mother tongue. Thus, some of them find the peer feedback process difficult.

## Suggested Solutions to the Problems

Because the above-mentioned problems are somehow related to the educational background and belief of the students, methods of implementation of the approach may be modified taking into account these contextual and attitudinal elements to ensure greater success in the feedback giving process.

The problem of the students' reluctance to rely on peer feedback may be solved by making use of the students' strong sense of identity with the group to which they belong. To most of them, any unsatisfactory performance of the students brings shame to the group (Wilson, 1989). To make use of the group consciousness of the students, the members of each group may be asked to write only one part of the report as a start. Then, they give comments on each other's parts in order to work on the first draft of a group report together. Perhaps they should not be asked to give comments on other groups' reports. If the group members are only asked to give feedback on each other's work instead of commenting on other group's work, the group consciousness together with the competitive spirit can help to motivate members to give helpful feedback to each other.

Perhaps the teacher should refrain from giving feedback at this stage and stay out of the centre of attention answering questions from the students if necessary. For example, the teacher can make it clear to the students that their writing will not be read unless questions are listed by them. Examples of these questions are: "My group members said my opening is weak, do you agree?" or "They said I should add questions to arouse interest. Do you think this is a good idea?". The students should be made to revise their first draft based on the comments given by their group members alone first. In this situation, peer-feedback giving is essential because comments are definitely needed from each other if the students want to put the parts together to form a group report. In such case, they will not feel that peer feedback is redundant. The teacher may give feedback only on the second draft that is produced after the students have made revisions based on the peer feedback on their first drafts.

It may not be enough just to provide the students with the guideline on the areas in which they can give feedback. Practical training may also be given to the teachers and students concerning how to give feedback so that they react to the piece of writing as readers but not evaluators (Cramer, 1985). For example, students may be asked to mention the effect something specific has on them as readers or to describe what the writing is doing using sentences like "All the sentences in this paragraph have the same sentence structure." They can also write questions on the margin to help the writer rethink certain points instead of writing remarks or comments. This may lower the sense of hierarchy that hinders the feedback-giving process. They will not feel embarrassed when they give feedback to their peers because they are not evaluating them. Samples of these questions or suggestions may also be given to the students to show them the difference between positive suggestions and evaluative comments. The feedback-giving process can also be modelled in class first. Students may be asked to prepare feedback on the work of former students (Mangelsdorf, 1992). The teacher can also model feedback by asking for the students' comments and comment on them.Peer review worksheets can also be given to the students to show them how to be polite, clear and specific (Mangelsdorf, 1992) so that no one will feel insulted when peer feedback is given.

To solve the problem of their inability to correct each other's grammar, it must be emphasised right from the beginning that they should only focus on content and organization first when they give feedback on each other's part of the first draft. This task is definitely within their ability range. It is also good to help them form the habit of first looking at their work globally before going into the micro level of linguistics.

After they have helped each other to improve the content and organization of each other's parts of the report, they can begin to edit their report. To help the students to deal with the language problems of the report together, perhaps the teacher may begin by asking the students to focus on one or two types of common errors made by the class only. The teacher can explain the selected common problem areas, such as verb-tense and verb-subject agreement errors or comma splices, in a briefing session and then ask the students to focus on these few areas only when they look at each other's parts of the paper. If the instructions and explanations given by the teacher about the grammar aspect are clear enough, the students will not find it difficult to help each other with these language problems. The students will not feel embarrassed because the errors are common. After the ice has been broken, they may continue to work on the remaining language problems together if they wish. However, if they find it too difficult to deal with these problems by themselves, the teacher may give them individual help later.

In very extreme cases when students are really too embarrassed to point out each other's grammatical problems, computer programmes such as Grammatik IV, if available, might be brought in as an ice-breaker. However, it must be made clear to the students that the programme is by no means the authority because it often analyses the text inaccurately (Pennington, 1990), gives "odd and erroneous advice" and fails to identify all errors (Brock, 1990). It only helps to point out some "errors" as a starting point for the students' discussion. The students must be reminded that they have to make decisions with the help of each other on whether the "error" pointed out is a real error and whether the advice given by the machine should be taken. The machine is a good ice-breaker in this case because it is a half-authority figure. It helps to break their embarrassment of pointing out each other's errors because this job is done by the machine instead. Even if the job is done wrongly, it is the machine's fault, not theirs. The machine can also help the students to break away from their habit of faithful submission to feedback from authority. Through making decisions about whether to take the advice of the machine or not, they learn how to make sensible use of other people's advice, including that of the authority.

However, it must be emphasised that care needs to be taken when the programme is used, otherwise there may be more harm done than good. The computer programme should only be brought in when it is really necessary, for example, when the students are too inhibited to speak up. It must be made sure that there is enough time for the students to work on it in class because the process is very time-consuming. The programme should only be used when the students have finished revising the content and organization of the report and have reached the stage of surface-level editing. Only at this stage of editing can the machine be used for what it is aimed for and the students will not be misled to think that editing a piece of writing means editing the surface-level errors only. It is alos very important that modifications be made to the programme so that it only flags the limited kinds of common errors which the students should be focusing on. By doing so, the students' needs will be better met, distractions will be reduced and the task will be made easier for the students. In case the students forget what the teacher taught them in the language input session, the built-in dictionary of grammar rules in the programme may stimulate their thoughts and help them to integrate what they have learned.

## Conclusion

To conclude, there are in fact many ways to handle peer feedback in the writing of reports. In this course, if one had taken into consideration the educational background and beliefs of the students (which are often neglected) in the choice of method of implementation, the peer feedback process would have been carried out much more efficiently and with greater success. Methods used by the teacher, such as making use of the sense of group identity to motivate the students, refraining from giving direct feedback at the initial stage and teaching the students the strategies of giving peer feedback on different aspects of the paper, if appropriately brought in, may help to bring about greater success.

It is hoped that the experience from this course may help to bring about greater awareness of the importance of the students' educational background and beliefs in determining the successful choice of a method to carry out a writing procedure especially when it is introduced to the students for the first time. It is also hoped that the suggestions on how the method may be improved will help to trigger off more and better ideas about how the process can be implemented more successfully.

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# Improving Oral English in the Hong Kong Context: A Camp Approach

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This paper describes the various aspects of a week-long pilot 'immersion programme', which involved seventy-two Form 4 pupils from three Anglo-Chinese schools in Shatin. This immersion programme is of particular interest to ESL/EFL educators and teachers because it was designed (i) to provide the diffident, reluctant-to-speak and input-cum-interaction-stricken secondary pupils with an 'English speaking environment', in which various types of communicative interaction or authentic language situations are available, and (ii) to provide an experimental setting for exploring the feasibility and effectiveness of using English summer camps as a means to oral English enhancement in the Hong Kong context. The initial results are positive and encouraging.

「英語營：口語能力訓練的新方式」

這是一個爲期一週的「沉浸式全英語營」實驗計劃的簡報。這計劃參加者爲七十二位沙田區英文學校中四學生。這個營針對一些講英語缺乏信心、水平不高、缺乏理想環境和溝通能力不足的中學生而設，希望透過這個營讓學員從各項生活化的英語活動，在耳聞目濡的感染下講英語。英語營的另一個目的是爲英語教學提供一個實驗場地，進行評估及探索，找出使用這方法在提高香港中學生口語素質、能力時的可行性和有效性。實驗的初步結果令人鼓舞。外語教育工作者和教師對這個「全英語營」設計當感興趣。

## Introduction

In Hong Kong, it is generally felt that the majority of the secondary school pupils have (great) difficulty in using English to communicate and interact with other people in situations where English is called for. These pupils are characterized with the following features: (a) a relatively low level of oral English proficiency and fluency; (b) lacking confidence and desire to use English inside and outside the classroom; (c) feeling tense and insecure if using English at all to communicate with others. The pertinent question here is: why do they exhibit such language phenomena?

One possible explanation of the observed phenomena is related to the sociolinguistic and cultural environment. Hong Kong is basically a monolingual society, with over 98% of the population being Chinese. There seems little genuine need, outside the classroom, for the Chinese pupils to use English in ordinary social encounters and in family life. Socioculturally and socio-psychologically, there is little motivation for them to learn to communicate/interact in English.

Another possible explanation is related to the emphasis of the English curriculum and the English classroom, which tend to focus on what Cummins (1979) has called the "cognitive academic language proficiency" (CALP) applied to the written form, to the general neglect of the training and development in the "basic interpersonal communication skills" (BICS) in spoken form. This varying emphasis is clearly reflected in the public examinations and the class time-table: oral English represents no more than one-tenth of the English assessment/training.

The third possible explanation is that there is a general lack of physical and learning space in the classroom for the communicative and interactive practice of English, and that the classroom activities and production of English are generally teacher-initiated and form-accuracy-oriented rather than learner-initiated and message-/meaning-oriented. This would tend to inhibit learners from developing communicative fluency in English.

In the face of this adverse sociolinguistic climate and pedagogical situation, how can English teachers and language educators pinpoint the pupils' proficiency and confidence problems and help them acquire a reasonable level of oral proficiency?

To explore answer(s) to the question, three Shatin secondary schools, at the initiation and invitation of Dr. Joseph Hung of The Chinese University of Hong Kong, jointly organised an English camp in July 1992.

## Inter-school English Summer Camp 92

The primary objective of the English camp was to provide the reluctant-to-speak (in English), diffident and input-cum-interaction stricken secondary school pupils with a week-long immersion (2-8 July, 1992) in a primarily "English speaking environment" through which they may gain greater confidence in speaking and using English as well as a relatively higher level of oral English proficiency.

Another objective of the camp was to provide an experimental setting for educators and teachers of English to explore the feasibility and effectiveness of using English camps as a means to English language enhancement in the Hong Kong context.

The participants in this camp included (i) seventy-two Form 4 pupils from the three participating schools serving as campers, (ii) six teachers from the participating schools plus twelve undergraduate English majors from the Chinese University of Hong Kong (CUHK) serving as camp leaders, and (iii) two CUHK students serving as camp assistants. To achieve maximum contact and interaction, the campers and camp leaders were divided into nine groups, each with eight campers and two leaders. The whole camp was supervised by the Camp Coordinator, who was the camp architect, and the Assistant Camp Coordinator, who was the 'field commander' of the camp programme. It should be pointed out, in passing, that the pupils applied to join the camp of their own accord.

## Theoretical Input to the English Camp Design

The English Camp design was based on HUNG's (1991) proto-type camp design, which drew on a number of sources: the humanistic concepts in language education (Moskowitz 1978, 1981); the psychological notion of "threshold"; the experiential procedure in language learning; and the task-based language teaching and learning (Long 1985; Nunan 1991).

Humanistic education aims to draw out the learner's potential and encourage him to deploy his existing resources; to make the learner feel important, successful, relaxed and secure; to create and provide a positive, supportive environment; to help the learner enjoy his language learning experience; to focus on both the learner's cognitive and affective development.

The psychological notion of "threshold" suggests that when a person (here the learner) is brought up to, or has reached, a certain psychological state (e.g., the confidence level), something begins to happen or take off.

The experiential procedure in language learning suggests that a good way to learn to do an activity is by actually participating in and experiencing it. It follows that a good way to teach language for communication is to involve the learner in authentic interactive situations.

"Tasks", in language learning, refer to goal-oriented activities or procedures the learner undertakes to attain particular objectives. Task-based learning is basically "learning by doing"; the tasks facilitate language learning. Apart from being purposeful, tasks have the value of focusing the learner on the message or "meaning" rather than on the "form". Depending on the nature and complexity, tasks may go beyond the mere practice of language and generate opportunities for genuine interactive communication.

## Characteristic Features of the Inter-school English Summer Camp

The English Camp was characterized by the following features:

(a) English being the only official means of communication in the camp.

(b) An emphasis on learning to communicate through authentic communicative interaction in English.

(c) A very high learning intensity and a language-rich programme.

(d) Active, challenging and enjoyable learning experience.

(e) A mutually supportive, caring and sharing environment, helping the participants feel accepted, reduce fear, and build up confidence and willingness to speak up and interact in English.

## The Camp Programme and Its Implementation

Based on the camp objectives and design characteristics, a full-week programme was planned (see Appendix 1). The programme consisted of action-centred, learner-centred and language-creating activities which are interesting and engaging, useful and intellectually challenging. For example, Party Games, Song and Dance, Story-telling and Drama quickly caught the campers' interest. Such activities were, however, not just a matter of fun and games; there was, in fact, much language input, language which would stick in the memory more easily because it was glued by enjoyment. Activities such as Asking the Way, Eating Out, Shopping, Expressing Yourself, Giving Advice, etc. provided the campers with various kinds of potential contact situations for practising communicative interaction and producing interactive output. These activities would be useful for the student-campers to acquire the "interactive competence" and "sociocultural competence" needed in any English speaking environment (Saville-Troike 1989). Equally useful but intellectually and linguistically more challenging activities included the "Mini-research" and the Variety Show, which were entirely campers' creations. Take the mini-research as an example. It required the campers first to discuss in English and decide on a topic which they were interested in "researching" (topics such as "the suitable age for boys/girls to get married"; "idea of the most beautiful girl / handsome boy / ideal husband or wife"; "the most important thing in life"). The next stage was to prepare a set of questions to ask. This was followed by interviewing campers from other groups. After the data had been collected, the campers had to discuss the findings and prepare a summary presentation. Finally came the actual presentation, in which each member had to take part verbally. Some presentations were accompanied by charts and diagrams; some were creatively presented in the form of a skit. As is clear from the description, what was involved in Mini-research was a series of intellectually and linguistically challenging activities which fully accommodated the campers' own contribution and creativity.

One general point should be mentioned about the programme implementation: each programme slot was maximally exploited for language enhancement. For example, the morning exercise would involve each camper in instructing other group members what to do, and the meal times were exploited to learn and talk about different culinary skills and cultures, table manners, (favourite) food, etc. This, of course, would generate heavy pressure on the campers. However, with the supportive environment and the loving and caring peers and camp leaders, the campers, in fact, took pleasure in sustaining the linguistic load and pressure, which was regarded as "pleasurable pressure".

## Initial Results

A pre-camp and a post-camp questionnaire were administered to 72 campers to study the effects of the English Camp on the campers' self-concept as well as their attitudes towards and confidence in using and speaking English. Table 1 below presents the relevant response patterns:

Table 1: Pre-camp and Post-camp Questionnaire Response Patterns (N = 72)

1. My level of spoken English is

| | very low | low | intermediate | high | very high |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pre-camp | 4 | 32 | 30 | 2 | 0 |
| Post-camp | 0 | 10 | 53 | 6 | 3 |

2 I like to speak English

| | not at all | + | + + | + + + | very much |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pre-camp | 1 | 6 | 29 | 24 | 10 |
| Post-camp | 0 | 3 | 18 | 44 | 7 |

3. Spoken English is difficult for me

| | not at all | + | + + | + + + | very much |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pre-camp | 0 | 16 | 39 | 14 | 3 |
| Post-camp | 12 | 35 | 19 | 3 | 3 |

4. I am willing to try and use English in the English class

| | not at all | + | + + | + + + | very much |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pre-camp | 1 | 5 | 22 | 28 | 14 |
| Post-camp | 0 | 2 | 17 | 39 | 14 |

5. I feel confident when using English in the English class

| | not at all | + | + + | + + + | very much |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pre-camp | 3 | 23 | 33 | 9 | 3 |
| Post-camp | 3 | 11 | 22 | 30 | 6 |

6. I feel confident when talking to foreigners in English

| | not at all | + | + + | + + + | very much |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pre-camp | 7 | 32 | 27 | 3 | 2 |
| Post-camp | 0 | 15 | 29 | 20 | 8 |

7. I feel comfortable when using English to people I don't know

| | not at all | + | + + | + + + | very much |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pre-camp | 6 | 29 | 31 | 3 | 1 |
| Post-camp | 1 | 14 | 26 | 25 | 6 |

8. I feel comfortable when talking to my English teacher in English

| | not at all | + | + + | + + | very much |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Pre-camp | 3 | 14 | 37 | 12 | 6 |
| Post-camp | 0 | 7 | 29 | 30 | 6 |

As is evident from the results, the English Camp had considerable effects on the campers' self perception of the English proficiency and difficulty level, their preference and willingness to use and speak English, and their confidence level in speaking English.

As regards the self perception of English proficiency level (Item 1), 36 campers rated themselves LOW or VERY LOW before the English camp; but after the camp only 10 thought so. As regards the level of difficulty (Item 3), 16 campers, before the camp, thought that spoken English was not difficult for them, but in the post-camp survey, 47 thought that English was not difficult for them. In the pre-camp survey, 12 campers showed confidence in using English in class (Item 5) and only 5 showed confidence in talking to foreigners in English (Item 6); but the post-camp survey showed that the number rose to 36 and 28 respectively. Before the camp 34 campers enjoyed speaking English (Item 2), but after the camp 51 campers enjoyed speaking English.

It seems unequivocal that the English Camp had a general positive effect on the campers. It raised the campers' confidence level in speaking English, heightened their interest and motivation in spoken English, and made spoken English look less threatening and more approachable.

## What May Have Contributed to the Success of the English Camp?

It appears to the present writers that the following factors are among the ones that contributed to the success of the English Camp.

(a) The English Camp provided a non-threatening, supportive learning environment, which would make campers feel accepted, reduce fear and build confidence, and which could turn learning burden into "pleasurable pressure". No less important was, of course, the commitment of the camp leaders.

(b) The insistence on using English as the only official means of communication helped to generate a genuine English environment and atmosphere, in which all camp leaders and campers operated and "lived" for the week. A relatively authentic English situation was thus created and there was genuine communicative needs for English.

(c) The full week language-rich immersion gave the campers a sustained period for practising and using English in various types of situations which would cumulatively help them build a stronger oral foundation.

(d) The English learning experience was an active, enjoyable one, which led to high motivation.

(e) The new learning setting, together with a new learning procedure and a new group of peers and leaders, would create a sense of "newness" and "freedom", which could lead to the opening up of oneself to novel learning possibilities.

## Implications for School English Programmes and Englsih Teaching

The Inter-school English Summer Camp 92 was the first systematic trial of its kind ever run in Hong Kong, which aimed at promoting oral English proficiency and developing pupils' confidence in using and speaking English. Judged from the results of the questionnaire and the campers' post-camp evaluation (a sample of which can be found in Appendix 2), the camp was considered a success, since it largely achieved the specified objectives. The relevant question to ask here is: What implications does the camp have for the school English curriculum and English language teaching?

## Some Implications for Curriculum Planning

1. The English Camp has suggested a systematic way to increase the "learning time" and "learning space" outside the school time-table and the formal classroom situation. [At least seventy hours of continuous "naturalistic" practice of spoken English in the camp, compared with no more than forty hours (1 hr. × 40 weeks) of oral English practice in the classroom spread over one academic year.] The camp could also be used as a supplement to an English curriculum which lacks spoken language practice.

2. The English Camp could serve as a model for some intensive oral English enhancement programme at the Senior Secondary levels, or for some "bridging" programmes at the Lower Secondary levels, which are geared to the English medium instruction.

3. The English Camp could also serve as a model for some "school vacation programmes", which may wish to incorporate a language dimension, thus killing two birds (ie. vacationing and English learning) with the same stone (ie. the Camp).

## Implications for Language Teaching and Learning

The single most important implication that the English Camp has for English teaching and learning is that, other things being equal, a supportive and caring learning environment accentuating the positive will make many things happen which may, otherwise, not happen. It follows that educators and teachers of English should try to create and provide such a learning environment.

As demonstrated in the English Camp, given a supportive learning environment, the learner's positive attitudes to English learning and use can be developed, and his confidence in speaking and using English can be brought about within a relatively short period of time (a "confidence leap").

A positive and supporting learning environment could also help and make the learner take pleasure in sustaining heavy learning load/pressure ("pleasurable pressure").

It is generally appreciated that an insistence on using English as the medium of (classroom) communication would help to generate the needed English environment and atmosphere within which English teaching and learning operate. Some educators and teachers of English, however, advise against or postponing the use of English as the medium of instruction in the English classroom because this would put undue pressure on the (English-wise) weak students. The view of the present writers is that without pressure or push, the learner may not move forward or progress fast, but pressure without the due support would push the learner over on the edge, making his learning experience a traumatic one. It is true that the learner may initially find the medium switch difficult and pressurizing, but he will soon get over this and adapt to the new medium *if* the English atmosphere in the classroom is strong, ie. *if* the pressure to use and speak English is a constant one, and, most importantly, *if* the learning environment (the teacher included) is a supportive and caring one.

## Conclusion

In view of the general lack of learning time and space for the development of oral English proficiency in the Hong Kong educational setting, the English Camp seems to be a viable and effective means to oral English enhancement. The pilot English Camp Project has proved to be a refreshing and enjoyable tool by which the EFL/ESL teachers can equip their pupils with greater oral English proficiency. As such, we would like to see more experimental attempts of its kind taking place in the near future, so that we could assess the generalizatility of the Camp Method to English teaching and learning in Hong Kong.

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## Appendix 1

Time-Table

| | Day 1<br>2/7 (Thur) | Day 2<br>3/7 (Fri) | Day 3<br>4/7 (Sat) | Day 4<br>5/7 (Sun) | Day 5<br>6/7 (Mon) | Day 6<br>7/7 (Tues) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7.30 - 8.00 | Morning Call & Morning Exercise | | | | | |
| 8.00 - 9.00 | Breakfast & Rest | | | | | |
| 9.00 - 10.30 | Registration 8.45 - 9.45<br>Opening Ceremony 10.00 - 10.30 | Asking the Way | Eating | Shopping | Advice & Expressing Yourself | Storytelling II & Drama |
| 10.30 - 12.00 | Campers Briefing 10.30 - 12.00 | | | | | |
| 12.00 - 2.00 | Lunch & Nap | | | | | |
| 2.00 - 3.30 | Getting to Know Others I | Songs | Story Telling I | Poetry | Outing to Kai Tak Airport | Preparation for Variety Show |
| 3.30 - 4.00 | Rest | | | | | Rehearsal and Shownotes 3.30 - 5.30 |
| 4.00 - 6.00 | Getting to Know Others II | Mini-Research I | Mini-Research III | Verse Practice | | Dinner 5.30 - 6.30 |
| 6.00 - 7.00 | Dinner | | | | | Rest 6.30 - 7.00 |
| 7.00 - 8.30 | Party Games I | Mini-Research II | Party Games II<br>Song & Dance | Talent Night | Party Games III<br>Song & Dance | Variety Show & Farewell |
| 8.30 - 9.00 | Campers' Evaluation | | | | | |
| 9.00 - 10.00 | Leaders' Evaluation | | | | | |

# Appendix 2

Dear Michall,

I have just came back from CU. I have a English Camp there for 7 days. I enjoy it very much, although you'll think it's too long but it will be end quickly if you enjoy it. I have learnt many things from it, and I hope you'll join it next time because you'll learn something that you haven't learn before, it is for daily life, and you just learn some written English in school, you should speak in English in this 7 days and I think it is an opportunities for you to improve oral. I made some friends from other schools, they all very friendly and lovely. I love them very much. In this 7 days, we have played drama which can learn some daily Eng., some poem are very interesting and because we seldom read them so I love it, and we learn vocabulary from story telling, it's time for us to make sentences and is very funny, we all play funny. Moreover we learn some vocabulary about cooking method, cloths, etc.

There are so many things we have learnt, the research give us chance to learn how to write report and having present, but I like the interview with foreigners most, as I can talk with foreigners, perhaps you'll like to join it. Especially the programme sing and dance, the campers all play together and are very happy. We really love it, and the dramas is very funny. We all adapt to the environment there, we listen, talk, write in English. What a nice camp.

It's a useful camp, I think 7 days is too short, if I can live there for 1 month and having this camp, I think I'll very inconvenience to speak Cantonese after the camp, do you envy me?

Now, I am in home, but I want to go there once again. And I want to have such teaching environment, ie. a group of pupil learning together and I don't like to sit in the classroom to have lesson, I'd rather to go out for having lesson.

I hope you would come with us next time.

love
Chelsea 8/7/92 after camp

---

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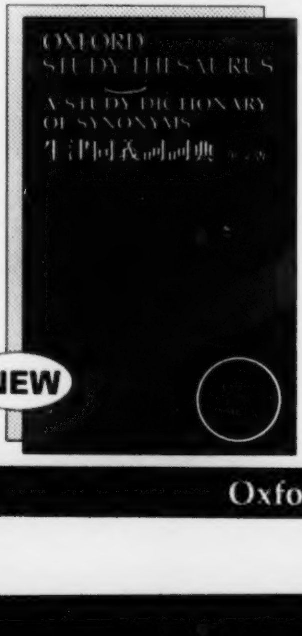
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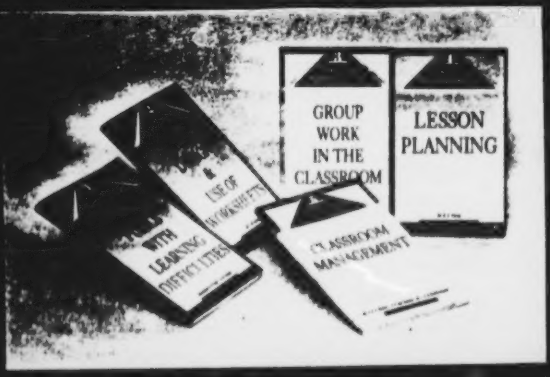
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# NEW HORIZONS

No. 34 November 1993

# 教育曙光

第三十四期
一九九三年十一月。

香港教師會
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香港教師會
教育學報

JOURNAL OF EDUCATION

HONG KONG TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

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# 香港教師會

香港教師會於一九三四年成立，以促進教育同工之間的密切合作、提高教育專業人員的地位、維護會員的權益、增進會員的福利、加強國際間的了解為宗旨。香港教師會除了是本港一個教育團體外，同時亦是多個國際性組織的會員，如世界教師專業組織聯合會及國際閱讀協會會員。

香港教師會的週年學術活動有：（一）教育研究大會，如一九九一年舉辦的「九十年代普及教育的挑戰」研究大會等；（二）本港教育專題研討會，如一九九○年至一九九二年間舉辦的「幼稚園、小學與中學的銜接研討會」、「特殊學校音樂教育研討會」及中學新任教師座談會」等；（三）定期出版 *教育曙光*。近年舉辦的國際學術活動，則有一九九一年與國際自由教師工會聯合會合辦的第六屆及第七屆香港地區教育團體研討會，以及一九九二年主辦的「我們的下一代——大陸、台灣、香港、澳門基礎教育研討會」。

# 教育曙光

*教育曙光* 是一份香港教師會出版的教育學報，每期均請專家評審；每年十一月出版，分發全港幼稚園、小學、中學及大專院校。

*教育曙光* 以促進專業發展與教學實踐為宗旨，每期均刊登具實踐和研究價值的文章。文章的範疇包括專題探討、本港當前教育問題的剖析，教學、輔導及學校行政的研究，教育新趨勢和新意念的介紹等。

歡迎教師、學校行政人員、輔導工作者、教育學者及研究人員投稿，請參閱每期刊登的徵稿啓示。並歡迎各教育機構訂閱 *教育曙光*，請將訂閱表格及郵費寄來香港教師會。

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# HONG KONG TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION

The Hong Kong Teachers' Association (HKTA), founded in 1934, aims at developing close cooperation among educational workers, promoting the professional status of teachers, protecting the rights and improving the welfare of its members and strengthening international understanding of teacher organisations. Apart from being a Hong Kong-based educational body, HKTA is also a member of international organisations such as Education International and the International Reading Association.

The academic activities of HKTA include: (a) the annual educational conference, such as the Conference on Challenges for Basic Education in the Nineties, held in 1991; (b) seminars on educational issues such as "Continuity in preschool, primary and secondary education", "Music education in special schools", and "Orientation for new Secondary school teachers", which took place in 1990-92; and (c) the publication of *New Horizons*. Among the international activities organised more recently by HKTA was the conference held in 1992 on Education for Our Children: Basic Education in the Mainland, Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macau.

# NEW HORIZONS

*New Horizons* is a refereed journal of education published annually in November by HKTA. It is distributed to kindergartens, primary and secondary schools and tertiary institutions in Hong Kong.

*New Horizons* publishes papers that speak directly to practical school and classroom concerns as well as papers that are based on systematic inquiries into educational issues and practices, including those related to the announced theme(s). The journal also publishes presentations of new developments and innovative ideas tried out in schools, in Hong Kong or elsewhere. In brief, *New Horizons* serves to stimulate and enhance professional development and practice in education.

Submissions are invited from teachers, school administrators, persons with pastoral duties, educationists and researchers. General information about submissions can be found in the Call for Papers in each issue of the journal. Subscription to *New Horizons* is on an institutional basis. Institutions are required to send in a request form and pay the postage.

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# 教 育 曙 光

## 徵 稿

**教育曙光** 一份香港教師會出版的教育學報，每年十一月出版，分發全港幼稚園、小學、中學及大專院校。

**內容** 教育曙光每期均刊登具實踐和研究價值的文章。歡迎教師、教育人士及學者投稿，文體不限：論文、報告、教材實例均可。文章範疇包括：

- 本港教育問題的剖析
- 教學、輔導及學校行政的研究
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# 教育曙光

第三十四期・一九九三年十一月

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＊有英文摘要

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* In Chinese

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# 課程設計、實施與評估

## 香港教師會1993年週年研討會講詞摘要

彭敬慈

課程發展處

本演講旨在與各位分享[illegible]課程設計、實施與評估的方法。講者首先討論「課程」的概念，並討論一個課程模式，[illegible]四個基本元素[illegible]的課程設計。講者亦討論影響課程實施成功的[illegible]。最後，講者建議運用[illegible]評估方法。[illegible]在演講中，講者以本港[illegible]課程改革[illegible]課程設計、實施與評估方法。

**Curriculum Design, Implementation and Evaluation**

The purpose of this talk is to share with the audience some views about curriculum design and implementation, as well as ways of evaluating students' achievement. The concept of curriculum is first discussed, with reference to a model showing the relationships among four basic elements. Attention is then drawn to systematic curriculum design based on the model, as well as to other necessary considerations. Curriculum implmentation is discussed in terms of factors affecting successful implementation, and a "level of use" framework is introduced for assessing the effectiveness of implementation. Finally, both formative and summative evaluation are recommended for assessing students' achievement. In the talk, these concepts of curriculum design, implementation and evaluation will then be illustrated by reference to two current major curriculum changes in Hong Kong.

課程是教育很重要的一環，直接影響教育的質素與效果。要培育更優秀的下一代，有系統與專業的課程設計、實施與評估，是先決條件之一。教育署課程發展處的主要工作，就是為此而努力。本人今天承蒙貴會邀請，感到十分之榮幸。希望藉這個機會與各位分享在課程設計、實施與評估等方面的意見。

## 課程設計

課程這個概念，不同的學者，於不同的時期，都有不同的見解。在早期，很多學者都把課程看為

「教學內容」、或
「教材」、或
「學校內的科目」、或
「校內所教的東西」等。

近年隨着教育的發展，對教與學的概念之轉變與教育心理學的影響，教育家對課程之觀念亦隨而改變。課程被一些教育家視為

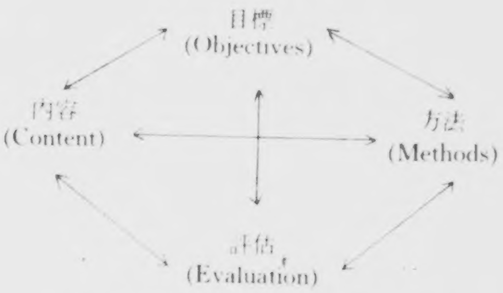
「一套表現目標」、或
「一切由校方人員計劃的東西」、或
「由上學所經歷到的東西」等。

時至今日，學者對課程的概念，仍未有一絕對的看法，雖然如此，很多教育家都贊成課程基本上必定是有關學生的學習經歷，且要考慮到目標、內容、方法與評估等問題。因此我自己比較喜歡下列這個課程的概念：

「課程是一系列經仔細、有系統策劃的教與學活動。在策劃過程中充分考慮到活動的（１）目標、（２）內容、（３）教與學方法的選擇與組織、及（４）評估。」

這個定義強調課程一定要有四大部分，即（１）目標、（２）內容、（３）教與學方法、與（４）評估。有些教育家亦清楚地把這四大部分組織起來建立了一個「課程元素模式」，顯示出四部分的互相調節，如下：

課程元素模式



這個模式看來顯然不很複雜，但其實含意很多，且對課程設計十分有用。模式清楚地指出課程的目標很重要地影響到課程的內容與方法的選

擇，亦影響到評估的方法。內容與方法之間亦有相互關係，選擇各方時亦受對方的影響。另外，評估的方法，除了受目標的影響外，亦受所選擇的內容與方法影響。模式的箭咀全是雙向的，指出各元素間之相互影響。如雖然目標影響內容、方法與評估的選擇，但在內容、方法與評估的考慮過程中，亦有可能影響原定的目標。同樣地，評估的方法亦可以影響到課程的內容與方法。

這個四元素課程模式，現今廣泛地受一般教育家所接納。基於這個模式，課程設計可以有系統地考慮四個元素而進行。如採取以下的步驟：

(1) 首先仔細地釐訂各層次的學習目標，
(2) 然後基於已訂的目標
　— 選取內容、
　— 選取教與學的方法，
　在過程中適當地就內容與方法之間作出取捨，互相調節，以達到最符合目標的地步。
(3) 就目標、內容與方法選擇最適當的評估方法。
(4) 整個過程完畢後再重新全面檢討目標、內容、方法與評估間之相互關係是否有最佳之配合。如配合不好，便向有關的元素作適當的微調，直至最理想的效果。

在釐訂目標、選取內容、教學法與評估形式時，很多教育家都建議以下的考慮：

目標：這是很重要的起步點。在釐訂目標時，一定要考慮到以下的因素：
政治、國家、經濟、宗教、知識發展。此外，很多教育家亦贊成釐訂全面的目標，充分與平均地發展學生三大方面的才能：
　思維：即知識與思想技巧
　技能
　態度

內容：須按目標選取最適當之內容，要小心避免選取過多的內容，妨礙採取有效但需時的教學方法。

方法：要著重就目標選取最有效達到目標的方法；宜多元化以有效地達到三大目標範圍的各目標，與引起、加强學生的學習興趣；應儘量採用生動、著重學生參與相互教學 (interactive methods) 的方法。

評估：應以多元化的方法有效地評估學生是否能達到被釐訂的各課程目標。應包括評估學習過程的情況，與學習的成果。除測驗與考試外，可考慮學生上課時之參與及表現，利用評估作業、計劃 (projects) 等不同的形式。

除了考慮四元素課程模式的四個元素外，在課程設計時亦應考慮其他該課程應有之策略與特色，如

— 是否有貫串所有課程元素的主線？
— 教材之形式與特色
— 是否有顧及個別學生的學習與班中學生的能力差異？
——是否採取螺旋式課程？

有效的課程設計，最理想的方法是以合作的形式進行。除課程發展專家外，應有教師、校長、教師培訓人員、大專專家、教育心理學家，甚至家長的參與。初步設計好的課程應先作廣泛的諮詢與修改，然後在進行有效的教師培訓後作有系統的試教與修訂，再加以編寫教材與全面向有關的人士介紹與宣傳，才作全面的推行。

以上所談及的都是一般課程設計的步驟，是由中央設計，然後推廣，與由老師實施。有教育家稱之為「R.D.D.」模式，即研究 (RESEARCH)、發展 (DEVELOPMENT) 與推廣 (DISSEMINATION) 模式。近年，研究與實踐經驗都顯示了這類中央發展的模式亦有其限制，如未能全面切合個別學校的特別需要，因此很多教育家都提倡了「校本」的課程設計模式，由老師按其學生的能力、興趣與需要而設計適合他們的課程、或實施課程之部分如教學計劃、教具、評估活動等等。RDD 與校本模式其實無大衝突，可兩者同時有配合地進行。

## 課程實施

有效的實施，是課程很重要的一環。無論課程設計得那麼完善，實施失敗的課程，便不能讓我們的下一代得到益處。

老師能夠有效地實施課程與否，是由多個因素影響的，包括是否能給老師提供足夠與適當的：

— 教材與資源

— 課程特色、理念等信息有效的宣傳與溝通
— 教師培訓
— 輔導服務與支持
— 老師間互相交流的機會

課程是否有效地實施，可以從多方面去了解。傳統的方法包括量度學生的成品和量度教材是否有被老師與學生使用。近來，量度教師對新課程的關注程度或教師用新教材的程度比較普遍。教育家 Colin Marsh 亦建議了以下的「創新使用程度」架構來顯示實施的效應。

創新使用程度表 (Marsh, 1991)
使用程度

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 0 | 不用 | Non-use |
| 1 | 定向 | Orientation |
| 2 | 備用 | Preparation |
| 3 | 機械式使用 | Mechanical Use |
| 4 A | 常規化 | Routine |
| B | 改良 | Refinement |
| 5 | 統整 | Integration |
| 6 | 更新 | Renewal |

## 評估

評估是每一個課程不可缺少的部分。傳統的評估著重評估完成課程後之學習成果，被教育家稱為「總結性評估」(summative evaluation)，大多以測驗或考試形式進行。

由於總結性評估只能量度成果，這種評估現在都被認為不夠全面。很多教育家都提出了學習過程之質素與成效亦不應忽視，也應包括在評估之範圍內。因此現在評估的概念，也包括了過程之評估。這種在學習過程中不同階段所進行的評估被稱為「進展性評估」(formative evaluation)。進展性評估除了提供評估性的資料外，對改進學習有很大的幫助。因為在學習過程中的評估了解到學習的問題後，老師往往可以及早指導學生朝向正確的學習。同時，進展性評估亦可以讓學生、家長、教師清楚地了解到學生學習的發展。進展性評估可以用多樣的方法進行，包括觀察學生上課時之參與及表現，使用評估作業 (assessment tasks)，進行評估計劃 (projects) 等。

現在，評估後的資料，都需有系統地紀錄與作報告，讓學生與家長能深入了解學習之進程與成效。報導的資料亦趨向「質」的表達，包括以文字與評語形式報告學習的效果。

## 總結

有系統地將各課程元素作仔細與全面考慮而設計的課程，配合以適當的進展性及總結性評估，是一個成功的課程之先決條件。要有效地幫助學生達到課程的學習目標，各實施影響因素亦應充份地加以調節與配合，好讓課程得以有效地由老師實施。

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# TTRA in Perspective

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In April 1993 it was announced that the introduction of TTRA into Hong Kong's schools was to be postponed. This postponement has created a breathing space in which we can look at TTRA from a broader perspective. This article considers TTRA in the light of some principles which emerge from the extensive literature on the implementation of educational change. The studies reported in this literature suggest that evolutionary change which respects the system which will implement it, is usually more successful than revolutionary change. It is important that all groups involved in the change should have a sense of "ownership" which motivates them to invest their efforts into implementing it. A condition for this is that all interested groups should have opportunities to participate in the design, planning and development of the change. It is therefore crucial for planners to facilitate a suitable mix of "top-down" and "bottom-up" processes. Implications are drawn for future attempts to introduce change into the schools of Hong Kong.

### 對目標為本評估計劃的檢討

1993年4月，教育署宣佈目標為本評估計劃將延期執行。這次延期使我們有更多空間對目標為本評估計劃從更廣闊的角度作出檢視。本文從文獻研究找出有關實行教育變革的原則，來探討目標為本評估計劃。文獻研究顯示漸進式變革比革命性的變革，成功的機會較大。在變革的過程，我們應給與有關人士一種「擁有感」，以產生一種致力實踐變革的原動力。要達到這目的，我們應該讓有關的團體在變革的過程中參予設計、計劃與發展，適當地將「由上而下」與「由下而上」的模式方式作出配合。基於以上這些觀察，我們對在香港學校引入變革的過程作出一些建議。

## Introduction

On the 30th May 1992, the *South China Morning Post* reported the unveiling by the Education Department of the details of the Targets and Target-Related Assessment (TTRA) initiative. TTRA was described by John Clark (leader of the HongkongBank Research Team which had drawn up the crosscurricular guidelines) as "the most exciting thing to happen to education in Hong Kong". However, the implementation of the scheme would "depend on the goodwill of teachers who [would] be required to come up with teaching materials and carry out internal assessment"; it was hoped that "teachers and school administrators would rally round and make it a success".

Less than a year later, on the 24th April 1993, the same newspaper reported that TTRA (a "revolutionary scheme to improve children's learning") had been "put on indefinite hold" because schools were not ready for its implementation. Dominic Wong, the Director of Education, described TTRA as a "very good concept" but "with hindsight the implementation was a little hasty. We did not expect the amount of training to be insufficient from the schools' and teachers' point of view". He expected the scheme to be introduced within five years.

Since then TTRA (now re-named "TOC" = "Target-Oriented Curriculum") has not been prominent in the public eye, but many pockets of activity are still evident. Apart from a newly constituted Advisory Committee, these include follow-up visits to teachers who attended the three-day introductory seminars about TTRA at the ILE, at least one team of teachers seconded to produce teaching materials, and continuing developmental work by members of the (now much smaller) HongkongBank Research Team and the Curriculum Development Institute. It is not clear to the outsider to what extent these activities constitute coordinated moves in agreed directions or independent initiatives by separate stakeholders. The TTRA/TOC initiative is now obviously in the melting pot and it would be a brave person who placed bets on what degree of innovation might emerge — it could presumably be anything from a renewed effort to introduce "revolution" into schools to a series of attempts to implement the Director of Education's more recent directive to make school learning enjoyable.

For many people in Hong Kong, TTRA in its heyday was the cause of so much messianic fervour amongst those who proposed it, so much anxiety and resentment amongst those who opposed it, and so much confusion amongst those who did not understand it, that there was all too little scope for dispassionate reflection. TTRA-related activities sometimes bore more resemblance to battles than to rational attempts to find common ground in the service of the children of Hong Kong. The complexity of the conceptual framework and the ambiguity of its implications for practice meant in any case that many interested parties could not participate meaningfully in the debate, except to ask the progenitors of TTRA for further explanation. Through his decision to cut through the confusion and put TTRA on hold, the Director of Education has created breathing space and an opportunity to stand back and reflect on the TTRA initiative from a broader perspective.

TTRA has been a central issue in the educational life of Hong Kong but, seen from a world perspective, it takes its place amongst thousands of other attempts to introduce innovations into educational systems. Educational innovation is now a well established field of study and there is a growing literature that deals with strategies for innovation and the conditions that favour it. In this article I will consider some of the principles and conclusions which emerge from this literature and which seem relevant to our recent experience in Hong Kong. They may help us towards a better understanding of why the TTRA initiative has not proceeded as intended by its initiators and, even more important, help us to illuminate a path for the future.

In this article I will not refer explicitly to my experiences while working as a HongkongBank Fellow on the TTRA Research Team from September 1991 to September 1992. However, these experiences naturally form an important background to my views. My own work with TTRA related to English but the discussion will be oriented towards more general issues in educational innovation.

## Ideas, systems and people

A set of innovative educational ideas is only the first step along the journey of innovation. The more difficult part of this journey begins when the ideas begin to enter the complex network of interrelating systems that constitute and influence the world of education. Miles (1964) expresses it as follows:

> Innovations are always operant in relation to a given social system: they affect one or more parts of the system crucially, and are in a very real sense rejected, modified, accepted and maintained by existing forces in the immediate system. (p. 18)

Embodied in these systems are the equally complex sets of beliefs and assumptions which underlie people's everyday behaviour. These traditional patterns of thinking and acting are not fortuitous but have evolved through centuries of adaptation to needs and circumstances. To those immersed in them, there is no prima facie reason why they should be changed in response to a set of new ideas which (as a glance at educational history might confirm) are themselves as likely to be misguided as well-founded.

Considerations such as these are an argument for realism and modesty in the introduction of any innovation which aims to change the ways that teachers teach. These ways are based on forms of experience and insider-knowledge (c.f. Brumfit, 1984) which are often more comprehensive than those available to the proponents of the innovation, especially when the latter come from outside the system where the innovation will operate. Hurst (1983) argues cogently for the need to be respectful towards tradition and regrets that many would-be planners "underestimate the minds of the potential adopters" whilst "overestimating the products of their own minds" (p. 55). From this observation and the evidence of a comprehensive survey of educational innovation over the 25 years to 1983, he concludes that "most successful change in education is evolutionary and gradual and it is fitting that this is so" (p.55).

The innovation intended by TTRA was revolutionary. In his consultancy report, Griffin (1991) describes TTRA as proposing "a fundamental change in the culture of the Hong Kong school system" (p. 2). The concepts behind the framework have won widespread admiration for their rigour and innovativeness but, particularly in its early stages, its developers were insufficiently sensitive to the need to facilitate what Horvath (1989, p. 62) calls "the gradual meshing of the innovation within the system" whose members would be asked to rally round and implement it. The stance which the developers adopted towards existing practice within the system was too often confrontational. If the system has rejected the innovation in its present form, this may be no more than one necessary stage in helping the process of mutual adaptation to continue towards fruition in the stages that are to follow.

## Ownership

Closely related to the matters discussed in the previous section is the question of so-called "ownership" of the innovation. There is overwhelming agreement in the literature that a condition for successful innovation is that participants at all levels of the system should feel that the innovation is in some way "theirs" rather than being imposed from above.

A sense of ownership is most likely to develop when the need for the innovation is agreed by those who will actually implement it. "On the whole.... innovations which are identified by the users themselves (rather than specified by an outside change agent) will be more effectively and durably installed than those which are imported from outside" (White, 1988, p. 133). If the innovation comes initially from outside agents, then according to Hurst's (1983) survey, successful change may still result, provided that the expected outcomes of the innovation are seen to coincide with the value systems of the participants.

This matching of expected outcomes and value systems is more likely to develop when there is participation at all levels in the decision-making process.

Kennedy (1988) highlights the importance of participation: "the more the responsibility for the project and the decisions to be taken are passed to the implementers the better, as this will encourage ownership" (p. 338). Griffin (1991, p. 9), Tomlinson (1990, p. 25) and White (1988, p. 133) make similar connections between participation in cooperative decision-making, sense of ownership, and successful outcomes.

Cooperation implies communication, which Hurst (1983) places at the head of his list of factors which (from the evidence of his survey) lead to the successful implementation of change. In Hurst's words, participants should feel that the initiative involves them in "a dynamic process in which their own experiences and judgments play a full part" (p. 58). A precondition for this is that the dialogue must be conducted through language with which all participants feel familiar and comfortable, rather than through the specialised academic discourse which outside change agents sometimes impose. Ways in which specialist discourse can "disempower" some interest groups has recently been documented in a number of studies (c.f. Fairclough, 1989). This factor has had an adverse effect at stages of the TTRA initiative and needs to be taken seriously by its successor TOC.

In reporting on a project to introduce a more learner-centred methodology into English teaching in Indonesian high schools, Tomlinson (1990, p. 25) mentions the efforts to "avoid the typical mistakes of top-down projects which impose innovation on implementers who have not been allowed to make any personal investment in their project". In his consultancy report referred to earlier, Griffin (1991, p. 9, referring also to Miles, 1987) emphasised the urgent need to convince the teaching profession and the community that these changes were needed and to involve all vested interest groups, especially teachers, in the "design, planning and development" of the initiative. The importance of similar efforts being made in relation to whatever emerges from the current transitional situation in Hong Kong must not be underestimated.

## Feasibility of the innovation

An important factor in eliciting the participation of those who will be asked to implement an innovation is that they should perceive what they are asked to do as not only desirable but also feasible. In the case of an innovation which is to be implemented in the classroom, this involves crucially the question of whether teachers themselves see the innovation as practicable within the constraints of their present situation (i.e. in the light of their available time, resources, skills and so on).

It is a question not simply of whether the changes in practice are *objectively* feasible but, more importantly, of whether teachers *perceive* them as feasible. For example, teachers in various parts of the world, including teachers in the Indonesian project described by Tomlinson (1990), have demonstrated that it is feasible to carry out group work in English with classes of 40 and more. Both in the UK and in Hong Kong, however, some teachers reject the use of group work on the grounds that their classes are too large. Griffin (1991, also referring to Miles, 1987) mentions the importance of "demonstrating" TTRA to the profession at large by means of model schools and implementing teachers. In a similar vein, Hurst (1983) includes "trialability" amongst the conditions which favour the acceptance of an innovation. Trials can reduce the level of uncertainty about its practicability and allow any necessary adaptations to be made ("adaptability" is another of Hurst's seven conditions). It is more difficult, of course, to arrange for the visible demonstration of a large-scale curriculum package such as TTRA than of a smaller-scale change such as the introduction of group work into individual classes. If the trials do not succeed in making the change acceptable, it is also more difficult to ascertain which specific components need adaptation.

A further element affecting teachers' perceptions of the feasibility of an innovation is the perceived ratio between the costs involved and the expected benefits to be gained. We may try to move mountains, but only if we think the gains are worth the effort. The "costs" of implementing an innovation may include such factors as spending extra time on preparing materials and learning new techniques, adjusting to new kinds of relationships in class, and adopting new goals which may seem to contradict previously-held beliefs and expectations. The "benefits" may include improvements in students' learning, stronger job satisfaction and better prospects for promotion. The more the potential benefits outweigh the actual costs in the teachers' perceptions, the more likely teachers are to "rally round" and invest the effort required.

This last point is related to two factors mentioned earlier: the expected outcomes must make sense within the teachers' value system, otherwise they will not be perceived as "benefits" at all; and teachers are more likely to accept the costs if they feel that their profession has been involved in the decisions from which they result. The inadequacy of the measures undertaken to achieve this involvement has been an Achilles' heel of TTRA and needs urgently to be remedied in future moves to introduce innovation into Hong Kong's schools.

## Bottom-up and top-down innovation

In the literature about educational innovation, a distinction is frequently made between "top-down" and "bottom-up" strategies. Although the labels assume an unfortunately hierarchical way of thinking, with planners and authorities at the "top" of a pyramid and those who actually implement the innovation at the "bottom", they are useful aids to awareness. They also serve to pull together some of the key strands in this article and lead it to a conclusion.

A typical bottom-up innovation in education might begin when a group of teachers becomes aware of a problem. They seek possible solutions, e.g. through consultation amongst themselves, drawing on their knowledge of other situations, and consulting outside experts and educational theories. They begin to implement possible solutions and, if these solutions are successful, they become established amongst the originating group and may be disseminated to other teachers. A good example of this form of innovation is the "Graded Objectives" movement in Britain (see for example Page, 1983). This began when groups of foreign language teachers began to feel that many pupils (particularly those whose orientation was not academic) were gaining little benefit from learning a foreign language at school. The teachers began to devise courses and materials with a more practical and communicative orientation. The new courses proved to be markedly more successful than the ones they replaced, with the result that other groups of teachers began to adopt the new ideas and published materials began to appear on the market. Soon the innovation had not only spread into a large proportion of British schools but also influenced conceptions of foreign language learning and prepared the ground in significant ways for the later introduction of new communication-oriented public examinations.

A typical top-down innovation proceeds in the opposite direction. A team of experts might perceive the need to produce a change in the educational system. They decide what change is needed and draw up plans for implementing it. The plans are passed down the hierarchy with the official backing of the authorities and teachers are expected to implement the change. A good example of this strategy for innovation is TTRA, particularly in its early stages. Plans were drawn up by experts from outside the educational system and defended vehemently against any opposition from within it. These plans were approved by official bodies in Hong Kong, such as CCTTRA, which cannot have been fully aware of the practical implications of their approval, since these had not yet been worked out. Teachers were informed of the plans, notably by means of a series of three-day seminars, and (according to the intended time-scale) were expected to implement them in their classrooms as from April 1993.

In reality, the process of innovation usually involves a mixture of top-down and bottom-up processes. Thus, in Hong Kong the TTRA initiative took on bottom-up characteristics when it was decided to trial the new curriculum in selected schools and seek teachers' opinions, before deciding on its suitability for the whole system. Conversely, in the British example, the changes towards a communicative curriculum took on top-down characteristics when they were embodied in public examinations and, as a result, imposed on all teachers. The top-down strategy has since become the dominant one in the U.K., in the so-called "cascade" model through which the changes required by the National Curriculum have been disseminated: like water in a cascading fountain, the source of change is located at the narrow peak of a pyramid of basins; from this source it flows into a small basin of inspectors, then into a larger basin of advisors and teacher trainers, and eventually into the large basin of teachers who are expected to carry out the changes in the classroom. The morale of many teachers has suffered as (in the words of a once-enthusiastic young teacher who has now decided to leave the U.K.) "the fun of teaching in the U.K. is squeezed out by ridiculous administrative demands" imposed from above.

One of the most important tasks for those planning TOC (or any other innovation in the wake of TTRA) is to set up structures which will facilitate a more satisfactory mix of top-down and bottom-up processes than has taken place so far. Obviously, as the leader of the TTRA HongkongBank Research Team pointed out in an inservice lecture to teachers, it is nonsense to suggest that each one of the several thousand teachers in Hong Kong can be involved in active discussion at the planning and development stages of an innovation. On the other hand, there is convincing evidence from experience in Hong Kong (c.f. Morris, 1992), other parts of East Asia (c.f. Morris and Marsh, 1991) and elsewhere (see the references in this article) that lasting and successful change depends crucially on allowing "all vested interest groups [to] have an active involvement in the design, planning and development" (Griffin, 1991, p. 9) of what they will be asked to implement. What White (1988) says about the language curriculum has been found to be true of other curriculum areas as well: "decisions ... rapidly cease to be decisions about ideas and become actions which affect people" (p. 113) and, if these people feel no personal investment in the changes which are planned, these changes are unlikely to be successful.

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# Qualitative Case Study Research: Issues Arising from the Implementation of a Curriculum Innovation

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This paper raises a number of issues in qualitative case study research including those related to the methodology, namely: (a) generalizing case study and making predictions; (b) bias and subjectivity; (c) intervention; (d) confidentiality; and (e) the problem of "trade-offs" (Nicholson A.Y.W. 1988, pp.88-89, 94-95). There are other issues which may relate to the research techniques used, for example, the presence of the researcher in non-participant observation and the predetermined sequence of structured interviews. Other practical problems may occur during data collection and analysis, and also in reporting, such as: gaining access, data overload, the researcher as the primary instrument for data collection and analysis, and finally a more local problem related to the difference between the spoken and reporting language. These issues have arisen in a qualitative case research study investigating how the implementation of a curriculum innovation took place in a school and why it occurred that way.

This paper will first introduce the background to the research including: (1) the problem of the implementation of curriculum innovation, (2) the research questions, and (3) the major characteristics of the curriculum innovation — Social Studies. Then the research strategy used will be explained, and finally, issues relating to qualitative case study will be discussed.

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## The Problem of the Implementation of Curriculum Innovations

In the 1960's, there was a strong belief in the efficacy of innovations and curriculum development projects. In the United States, and on a lesser scale in the United Kingdom and Australia, a good deal of money was spent on developing curricula for use in primary and secondary schools. The assumption was that a good curriculum developed by subject experts would be implemented by classroom teachers in accordance with the intentions of the curriculum designers. The early approach of the curriculum development in the 1950's and 1960's was greatly influenced by Tyler's Objectives Model (Tyler R.W. 1969), which stresses aims or intentions. There was, however, much evidence which suggested that such an assumption did not hold. In fact, it was found that curriculum planners continued to introduce new and modern innovations that were not being implemented in practice. (Mann D. 1976, Hurst P. 1983)

As a result, by the early 1970's curriculum specialists were indicating the importance of studying post-production processes. A new curriculum language emerged to describe those processes — dissemination, adoption, implementation, incorporation, continuation and evaluation. A major theme which dominated curriculum thinking was developed: curriculum design, if it were to be successful, needed to be accompanied by strategies specially planned to influence potential users of curriculum products.

It was recognized that to ensure the success of an innovation, adequate structures for communication and user support were necessary (Havelock R.G. & Huberman A.M. 1977, Fullan M. & Park P. 1981, Hurst P. 1983, Kennedy K. et al. 1984). One main outcome of this era of educational innovation and revision was the knowledge it had produced about what implementation was and the many attempts to plan for it.

It turned out that implementation was much more complex and difficult to plan than had ever been contemplated. Such complexity was revealed in one of the main observations of Fullan M. & Park P. (1981, pp.1), namely that "implementation is less a problem of dogmatic resistance to change and bad intentions of individuals (although there is no doubt about some of that) and more a problem of the difficulties related to planning and coordinating thousands of people".

The literature on educational changes, reveals a dichotomy. On one hand, there was a collection of literature developing *strategies* for educational innovation that had been telling practitioners how to accomplish change in actual school settings (Havelock R. 1973, Hord S. 1987). On the other hand, there was a growing body of *descriptive* studies which indicated that the actual amount of change in schools fell significantly below expectations (Fullan M. 1972). Although there were some reports on successful implementation, it appeared that few strategies for innovation could point to solid evidence that their particular sets of procedures had in fact produced fundamental changes in schools (Doyle W. & Ponder G.A. 1977).

The most common reaction to this discrepancy between promise and achievement was a search for procedural solutions. Unfortunately, most of these strategies were prescriptive, stating how change should occur. My belief was that a thorough understanding of the naturally existing mechanisms which operated in school environments was essential, if an effective change strategy was ever to be devised. Statements of how change *should* occur were not very useful in interpreting how classroom teachers actually responded to influences which impinged upon their established habits and practices. Therefore, it was important not just to measure the level of success of an innovation, nor to develop prescriptive procedural solutions, but to understand the implementation of the policy *in practice*. This included qualitative accounts of the processes and practices of schooling.

This study addressed the problem of implementation of a curriculum innovation. It examined the process of the actual implementation of a curriculum in a specific context, focusing on the decision-making processes which appeared to underlie teacher reaction to an innovation. An analysis of the relationship between the setting for innovation and implementation was considered essential. The emphasis throughout this study was on description and explanation, rather than on validation and prediction. The result was a preliminary account designed to contribute to and stimulate further research.

## The Research Questions

The central question of this research was: "How and why is an curriculum innovation implemented in the way it is?" The focus was on the implementation process of a curriculum innovation (the F.I-III Social Studies Curriculum) in a specific educational system (Hong Kong). The following are the objectives:

(a) to describe the implementation process at work;

(b) to identify constraints during the process of implementation;

(c) to analyze how the actual implementation differed from the intended one;

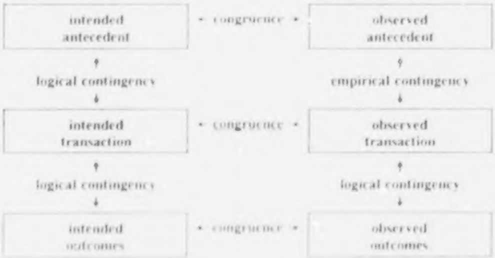
(d) to provide possible explanations to why it occurred the way it did; and

(e) to suggest some implications for possible improvement.

Some features of this study need to be pointed out here. First, it concentrated on the *process* at work (i.e. what was actually happening in a school) rather than measuring outcome. It employed a qualitative case study approach which observed the characteristics of an individual unit — a school in this case. The purpose of such observation was to probe deeply and to analyze intensively the multifarious phenomena. The research methodology will be explained later.

Second, one of the objectives of this study was to analyze *how the actual implementation differed from the intended one*. Figure 1 distinguishes the areas studied. As shown in the diagram, Stake R. (1977, pp.152-155) identified two principal ways of processing descriptive evaluation data: (a) finding the congruence between intents and observations, and (b) finding the contingencies among antecedents, transactions and outcomes. Transactions referred to the processes of change. This study focused on the "intended transactions" and the "observed transactions". The intended transactions were derived from the design of the curriculum — the *F.I-III Social Studies* while the observed transactions were gathered from empirical evidence. Then the congruence and non-congruence were identified and discussed.

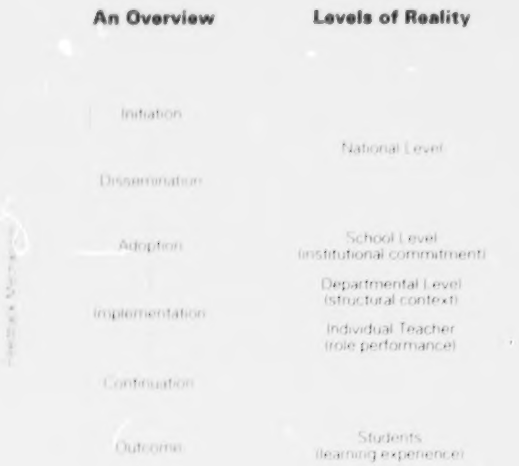
Figure 1 A Representation of the Processing of Descriptive Data (taken from Stake R. 1977, pp. 153)



NB: This study only focuses on the areas highlighted in the diagram: (1) the two cells — "intended transactions" and "observed transactions", and (2) the congruence between them.

Third, this study mainly focused on the adoption and implementation stages of the change process only. The design of the curriculum and the other stages in the change process were not studied though some of the problems relating to these aspects were reflected in the findings. Figure 2 shows the process of change of a curriculum innovation.

Figure 2 The Process of Change and the Levels of Reality of an Innovation


An Overview
Levels of Reality
Initiation
National Level
Dissemination
Adoption
School Level (institutional commitment)
Departmental Level (structural context)
Implementation
Individual Teacher (role performance)
Continuation
Outcome
Students (learning experience)

## The Major Characteristics of the Innovation

Hong Kong has a centralized education system. The Curriculum Development Committees (CDCs) centrally produce the teaching syllabuses and they *are the official documents*. For schools to use other curricular or textbooks not recommended by the CDC is nearly impossible (Morris P. 1985, Nicholson A.Y.W. 1988). The subject "Social Studies" was first introduced in 1975. A Provisional Syllabus for the F.I-III level was published in the same year and was one of the series prepared by the CDC for use in secondary schools. This Provisional Syllabus formed part of the target common-core curriculum and was part of an ambitious project aiming to reorganize the curriculum at the junior secondary level.

The project proposed to allocate 25% of the timetable to practical subjects and the aim was to change the approach to junior secondary education from an emphasis on academic knowledge to concentrating on the "process of preparing children with the necessary skills to become useful citizens with the ability to think for themselves and to understand the practical problems of living in the society of Hong Kong and in the modern world around them" (Chamberlain T. 1977, pp.3).

This Provisional Syllabus was later replaced by the *Syllabus for Social Studies (Forms I-III)* in 1979, with some modification and elaboration. The idea to replace the traditional academic subjects by "Social Studies" as a common core subject was dropped. The majority of schools were reluctant to give up the traditional subjects.

The result was that it would be offered as an independent subject and the decision to adopt it was left to individual schools. This policy has remained unchanged and the 1979 edition of the Syllabus has been in use as the official guideline for the subject up till now.

Apart from being a "new" subject introduced to the junior secondary curriculum in the mid 70's in Hong Kong, the *F.I-III Social Studies* curriculum had the following characteristics. It was an *imported* curriculum with the following imported concepts: (a) the nature of social studies; (b) the integrated approach; and (c) the recommended heuristic style of teaching. The Curriculum was very much influenced by the Keele Integrated Studies Project financed by the Schools Council in U.K.

"Social Studies" was a relatively new subject in the school curriculum. In the 1960's and 1970's, there were a number of projects developing the subject in western countries, such as those sponsored by the American Council of Learned Studies and the National Council for Social Studies in U.S.A., and the School Council Projects in U.K. (Baker D.G. 1971, Rennie J. et al. 1974). The *F.I-III Social Studies* curriculum in Hong Kong followed these projects and was designed to promote *social education*, to cultivate personal development and to encourage attitudes conducive to full participation in adult life.

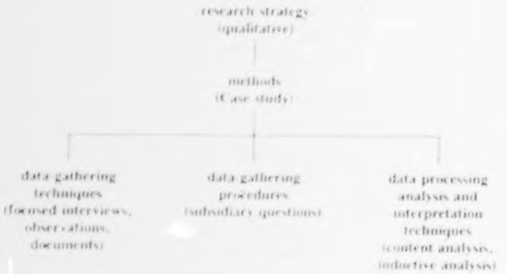
It also adopted an *integrated approach*. Pring R. (1976) identified four kinds of curriculum integration: (1) integration in the correlation of distinct subject-matter; (2) integration through themes, topics or ideas; (3) integration in practical thinking; and (4) integration in the learner's own interested enquiry. The *F.I-III Social Studies* attempted to incorporate all these aspects. The Syllabus drew its knowledge from the essence of the existing social subjects, namely geography, history, economic and public affairs, and health education, knitted together by a series of themes (*Syllabus for Social Studies Forms I-III* 1979, pp.5). It also pointed out the importance of encouraging students to acquire an enquiring mind and skills which were common to all intellectual pursuits and which gave unity to thinking. The subject therefore was an integrated study of some broad themes involving the coordination of subjects.

This also brought out another characteristics of the Subject. It required the use of a non-traditional approach to teaching which emphasized student involvement and a *heuristic style of learning*. A whole chapter in the Syllabus was devoted to elaborating the recommended teaching strategies and words like 'activity', 'discovery', 'pupil-centred', 'involvement' etc could be found throughout the text.

## The Research Strategy — A Qualitative Case Study

This research studied the implementation process of an innovation at the school level, and attempted to find out what was and what was *not* actually implemented as compared to the expectation of the innovation. A research strategy specifying the approach and techniques used was developed. Figure 3 is an overview of this strategy.

Figure 3 An Overview of the Research Strategy used


research strategy
(qualitative)
methods
(Case study)
data gathering techniques (focused interviews, observations, documents)
data gathering procedures (subsidiary questions)
data processing analysis and interpretation techniques (content analysis, inductive analysis)

### A qualitative strategy

The research strategy in this study was qualitative or *interpretive*, in a fundamental sense. What made it qualitative or interpretive was a matter of substantive focus and intent, rather than of procedure in data collection, i.e. a research technique does not constitute a research method (Erickson F. 1986, pp.119-120). In this case, the immediate meanings of actions from the actors' point of view were of central interest, and a qualitative approach with naturalistic, holistic and inductive characteristics (Patton M.Q. 1980) was considered suitable to the task of describing the process of curriculum implementation. The following are the characteristics of the strategy used in this research.

The design was *naturalistic* in that the researcher did not attempt to manipulate the research setting. It intended to understand naturally occurring phenomena in their naturally occurring states. The complexity of reality was accepted.

A *holistic* view helped to understand phenomena and situations as a whole. It assumed that the whole was greater than the sum of its parts. Thus it was insufficient simply to study and measure the parts of a situation by gathering data about isolated variables. The holistic approach was to gather data on any number of aspects of the setting under study in order to put together a complete picture of the social dynamics of a particular situation.

The strategy used was *inductive*, which began with specific observations and built toward general patterns. It attempted to understand the multiple interrelationships among dimensions which emerged from data without making prior assumptions about linear or correlative relationships among narrowly defined, operationalized variables.

### A case study approach

Case study can either be experimental or qualitative. According to Crossley M. & Vulliamy G. (1984), three traditions of qualitative case study in research exist: the anthropological, the sociological and the use of case study in curriculum programme evaluation. During the 1970's, curriculum evaluators such as Stake R.E. (1967), Parlett M. & Hamilton D. et al. 1977), Scriven M. (1971), Eisner E.W. (1978), MacDonald B. and Walker R. (MacDonald B. & Walker R. 1975, Walker R. 1980a) drew attention to the failings of traditional curriculum evaluation which focused only on the terminal behaviour of the learners, and was too much tied to valid experimental control and was thus insensitive to reality. They had alternatively developed a distinctive style of case study as a mode of disciplined inquiry. The scope was broadened to include processes in addition to output, to involve varied forms of data and to focus on the description and interpretation of innovation in context, rather than on measurement and prediction.

Since this research focused on the in-depth study of the implementation process at the school level, a case study approach following the tradition in curriculum and programme evaluation was adopted. However, defining the case study approach was not simple. Traditionally in such disciplines as anthropology, sociology or organizational behaviour, case studies had been taken as "intensive investigations of single cases which served both to identify and describe basic phenomena, as well as to provide the basis for subsequent theory development" (Kenny W.R. & Grotelueschen A.D. 1984). Among curriculum evaluators, instead, a widely quoted definition used was "the study of an instance in action" and the study of a "bounded system" (Adelman C. et al. 1980, Atkinson P. & Delamont S 1985, Merriam S.B. 1988).

However, I would like to explain more specifically the approach used in this research. Thus, a case study was defined as "a detailed documented account of the implementation process of an innovation at a particular time in a particular school". The study was descriptive, analytical, particular, and small scale. It recorded progress in class, documented observations and drew on the judgement and perspectives of participants in the process — teachers, students, principals — in coming to understand observations in the specific context. Description of both progress and social context was an important part of this study. Such descriptions provided opportunities for the understanding and interpretation of the implementation process at work (Simons H. 1977, 1980). In summary, the aims of using a qualitative case study in this research were:

(a) to understand the cultural context of the school to be studied;

(b) to describe the implementation process at work, and

(c) to probe deeply and to analyze the multifarious phenomena that existed in the school.

### *Techniques for data collection*

Data collection in this research relied on three sources, namely: observation, interviewing and documents or records. The multiple methods of data collection in research could be referred to as triangulation. In general, it was characterised by a "multimethod approach to a problem in contrast to a single-method approach" (Cohen L. & Manion L. 1985, pp.256). Denzin N.K. (1970) suggested several types of triangulations: time triangulation, space triangulation, combined levels of triangulation, theoretical triangulation, investigator triangulation and methodological triangulation.

In this study, *methodological triangulation* was used for the following reasons. (1) It provided a more holistic view of the implementation process. (2) Different methods complemented one another in data collection. (3) It provided cross checking for the information collected. (4) It was relevant where a complex phenomenon required elucidation. It might reflect the more subtle, intangible features and the factors such as attitudes of students and teachers. These helped to generate a fuller and more realistic view of the classroom activities. (5) It was a useful technique for investigating case studies, which stressed the multiplicity of perspectives present in a social situation. It could present the differing and sometimes conflicting viewpoints. By combining methods to a single purpose it was possible to observe the same events from several points of view, in this case, of the researcher, the teachers and the students.

Interview was the main technique used here. A number of writers had identified different types of interviews (Cohen L. & Manion L. 1985, Patton M. Q. 1980, Powney J. & Watts M. 1987). I had instead grouped interviews into four kinds: structured or standardized open-ended interview, focused interview, informal conversational interview and non-directive interview (Nicholson A.Y.W. 1988, pp.104-107). The type used in this research was *focused interview*. Interviews were sufficiently guided by the questions predesigned, but certain flexibility was allowed to probe the issue in greater depth. An open-ended situation allowed unanticipated answers. Since there was only one interviewer, bias was reduced though subjectivity still existed. Checklists for interviewing different groups of interviewees were prepared.

The purpose of observational data was to describe the setting, the activities taking place and the participants, and to generate meanings from them. The observational strategy adopted was *non-participant observation*. Since a human observer could not see as a camera and even a camera had to be pointed in the right direction to capture what was happening, the following areas were identified to facilitate observation: the physical environment, social environment, inside and outside classroom activities, and informal interactions and unplanned activities.

*Documents and records* were also used as sources of information. They provided information on occasions when the researcher could not participate and also those that could not be directly observable. Sources of documents and records used in this research included minutes of meeting, student records, teachers' workload and schedules, teaching plans, students' assignments, test papers and marking schemes, resource materials available in schools, etc.

### *Data-gathering procedures*

In order to study "how and why is an curriculum innovation implemented the way it is?", the following subsidiary questions were developed.

1. What are the characteristics of the *F.I-III Social Studies* curriculum?
2. What are the contextual features of the school being studied?
3. Why did the school adopt the said Curriculum? How did the decision come about?
4. How is the structural context organized at the departmental level in the school in relation to the implementation of the Curriculum?
5. How is the Curriculum being implemented by the subject teachers?
6. What are the problems and constraints that hinder the effectiveness of implementation?

From these questions, a framework for data collection (Figure 4) was developed.

### *Data processing, analysis and interpretation*

The purpose of qualitative enquiry is to produce findings. The process of data collection is not an end in itself. One of the most important activities of qualitative research is analysis, interpretation and presentation of findings. Deriving characteristics of F.I-III Social Studies Curriculum was the first analysis to be done before field data to be collected, because they were used as criteria to assess the actual implementa-

Figure 4: Framework for Data Collection

| Major Categories | Sub Categories | Research Techniques |
|---|---|---|
| The Characteristics of the Social Studies Curriculum | 1 the aim<br>2 the nature of social studies<br>3 the integrated aspects<br>4 content arrangement<br>5 teaching strategy<br>6 assessment | ● documentary analysis<br>● interviews (E.D. inspectorate, members of CDC subject committee) |
| The Contextual features of the school | 1 the history<br>2 organization<br>3 location and environment<br>4 students' grouping (e.g. streaming)<br>5 characteristics of subject teachers<br>6 characteristics of students | ● examination of records<br>● interviews (principal, panel head)<br>● observation |
| Adoption at school level | 1 the reasons for adopting the subject<br>2 who made the decision?<br>3 problems in structural change<br>4 the plan for the future regarding the adoption of the subject | ● interviews (principal, panel head) |
| Structural context at departmental level | 1 departmental reorganization (teaching load, scheduling etc.)<br>2 teaching team<br>3 collaborative planning<br>4 coordination at each Form<br>5 resources<br>6 problems and constraints | ● interviews (panel head, subject teachers)<br>● observation |
| Implementation by individual teachers | 1 teachers' understanding of and reaction to the Curriculum<br>2 the implementation of<br>the aims<br>the content<br>teaching strategy<br>assessment<br>3 problems and constraints | ● interview (teachers, sample students)<br>● examination of records and student work etc.)<br>● classroom and general observation |

tion and to develop items in the instruments and observation. The list of characteristics were grouped into five areas: aims, structural context, organization of content, teaching strategies and assessment.

The strategy used in analyzing interviews was divided into two parts. It began with *case analysis* which meant writing a case for each person interviewed and then *cross-case analysis* was used for each question in the interview. Answers from different people were grouped according to the questions in the checklists prepared for interviews. The checklists provided a descriptive analytical framework.

Analysis of observational data was grouped under the areas identified for observation: the physical environment, social environment, inside and outside classroom activities, and informal interactions and unplanned activities. However, these were not mutually exclusive and they only served as the initial framework for managing data collected.

Finally data from all initial analysis from all sources were "converged" around the subsidiary questions. The final product was a descriptive analysis of the process of implementation in the school studied.

## Issues in Qualitative Case Study Research

A number of writers have written on the advantages of the qualitative case study approach (Hamilton D. et al. 1977, MacDonald B. & Walker R. 1977, Simons H. 1980, Adelman C. et al. 1980, Kenny W.R. & Grotelueschen A.D. 1984, Merriam S. B. 1988, Miles M.B. & Huberman A.M. 1984). However, the demands of conducting qualitative research were not small, for example collecting data was a labour-intensive operation, and field notes mounted up, resulting in data overload. The following are some issues arising from my experience in the above described research study. These are not unique and in most cases confirm what many other qualitative researchers have experienced.

Qualitative case study as a methodology has raised a number of issues. First, it provided a subjective or even a biased view, a "distorted" picture of the way things were. The nature of the research relied heavily on the interpretation and the skills of the researcher. Proof was rarely obtainable. Secondly, the research was an intervention, and often an uncontrolled intervention in the lives of the others. It might also have brought about the problem of confidentiality of data collected and the subsequent release of material for publication. There were ethical problems involved since people and incidents could be identifiable. Moreover, this study was unique. This brought about the problem of generalization in case study.

There were other practical problems related to conducting qualitative case studies. The "account" simply could not be exhaustive. There were the problems of selection, finding too much or not finding not enough. The accounts described were partial, involving selection at every stage, from choosing the school for study to sampling events and instances, and to editing and presenting materials. They were almost always conducted under the constraints of time and resources. Trade-offs were unavoidable due not just to limited resources and time, but also due to the limitation of human ability to grasp the complex nature of society reality.

Trade-offs involved decisions to maintain a balance and such decisions were made at each stage of the research. For example, the very first trade-off was in the framing of the research questions. The problem was to determine whether one or a few questions to be studied in great depth or to study many questions in less depth. This was referred to as the "boundary problem" in naturalistic enquiry by Guba E.G. (1978). The problem of establishing focus and priorities was also difficult. In this study the focus was on the implementation process, but outcomes and other stages in the changes were equally important. Therefore, the trade-off here was one between breadth and depth.

There were limitations in the research techniques used. Interviews for example had bias. A range of non-rational factors governing human behaviour, like emotions and interpersonal influences were unavoidable. Other factors such as mutual trust, social distance, interviewer's control, reactivity of the interviewee to the interviewer and self-serving responses could also might have affected the data.

There were a number of constraints in some of the interviews conducted. (1) A couple of the interviewees were friends of the interviewer. The interviewees in these cases might be more willing to talk but the interviews often ended in informal conversation. There were also interruptions and informal chats "overloaded" the data. (2) Most of the interviewees were defensive in their attitude and unwilling to give their views on some questions. This was mostly due to the unpopularity of the Subject. (3) Since teachers and other interviewees worked in very crowded conditions, nearly all the interviews had to be conducted in a semipublic setting. Most of them were not able to comment freely nor were they willing to divulge information they considered sensitive. (4) Most teachers interviewed felt very uncomfortable with tape recording. In a number of occasions, the interviewees refused to have the interview recorded and the interviewer had to resort to note-taking instead.

Observations, on the other hand, were a limited method of data collection because the observer might have affected the situation being observed in unknown ways. The teachers might have behaved in an atypical fashion as they knew that they were being observed. A selective or partial perception of the observer might "distort" observational behavioural data. The observer could only record the external behaviours and could not see what happened inside people.

Apart from occasional curious or suspicious looks, the researcher managed to move around the school freely and was able to observe the environment and to sit in some of the activities. The subject teachers were cooperative but reluctant to be observed. They still considered the classrooms as their own territories and they found this kind of data collection technique to be intrusive. They felt that they might be considered as "problem teachers" since classroom observations in the school were only conducted by the principal or panel heads either to appraise or to check on the teachers. Some of the students also felt uneasy when they were being "watched" by a stranger.

In general gaining access was not easy. Overall data collection was not easy. Although acquiring initial access to "enter" the school had no problem, this did not guarantee access to the others who had no say in this decision. Further access had to be negotiated with teachers and students. Getting access to documents and other materials were not easy either. A lot of effort was required. Moreover, documents could be subjected to a variety of measurement errors. They might be incomplete, inaccurate, selective since only activities and events might not be recorded in full details. They were also uneven in quality. Inferring from these data had to be careful.

Data analysis was a painful task. It was tedious and time-consuming. Field notes, transcripts and all kinds of documents piled up. Everything looked important. It was difficult to sort out the data, retrieve the words or paragraphs that were useful, reduce the bulk into readily analyzable units and draw conclusions. Since the research, like all qualitative research, mainly dealt with words and phrases that had multiple meanings rather numbers, the whole process of analysis is highly inferential and interpretive.

Finally, language was an issue relating to data collection, processing and reporting. The language used for the interview and in other activities is Cantonese, a dialect used by the majority of the Chinese population in Hong Kong. It is basically a spoken language and a number of words and phrases are colloquial. They often do not have equivalence in the formal style of writing. This meant that conversations in this research could not be recorded word by word. Translation or decoding and interpretation were required when they were transcribed into scripts. There was an added complication when the findings with quotations were reported in English. All these made the process of analysis much more difficult and time-consuming. And most important of all, it relied heavily on the language ability and interpretive skill of the researcher.

Research is a learning process. This paper aims to share an experience of a qualitative case study research and to discuss some issues in this experience. There is no simple answer to any of these, and it is not the intention of this paper to suggest any solutions to these problems. This paper hopes to raise them for further discussion.

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# 中學中文教師對學生作文中使用香港方言詞語的語言態度問卷調查報告

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香港方言詞語在書面上的運用準則，是近年來中文教學的熱門話題。本調查採用語言態度的 [illegible] 法，徵詢 [illegible] 名中學中文教師對學生文章中使用方言詞語（共238個）的態度。結果顯示，教師的態度一般比較寬容 [illegible]，而對不同類型詞彙有不同的處理方法，情況頗爲混亂，應該有明確的準則。文章建議 [illegible] 詞語與普通話詞語的對應 [illegible]，同時要留意整理已進入本地書面語的方言詞彙的工作。

## A Survey on the Attitudes of Hong Kong Secondary Teachers of Chinese Language towards the Usage of Local Dialectal Words in Pupils' Essays

The criteria for judging the acceptability of local dialectal words in written Chinese has recently become topic of discussion in the context of Chinese Language education. This survey studied the attitudes of secondary school teachers of Chinese Language towards the usage of local dialectal words in pupils' essays. 380 teachers were asked to respond to 238 dialectal words. The findings indicate that local Chinese Language teachers are in general open-minded about the use of dialectal words and have flexible attitudes towards such usage. However, different degrees of acceptance were recorded of different categories of words. The situation is one of confusion. This paper suggests that an understanding of the differences in word use between Cantonese (as spoken in Hong Kong) and Putonghua be developed in teachers and students in Hong Kong. Works of local authors and dialectal words which have found their way into the local written language should be compiled and organized for further study on language use.

## 引言

香港屬於漢語方言區，絕大部份居民用本地方言（香港粵語）進行日常交談。但學生在學校的中文課中，無論閱讀或寫作，都要用規範的語體文（現代標準漢語）。香港學生學習中文，無可避免要面對口語與書面語分離現象的困擾。

粵方言在香港的強勢地位，更使這個困擾的問題顯得複雜。一方面，學生在讀寫書面語時，顯然受到粵語的干擾，造成教與學上的諸多困難。另一方面，充滿生活氣息、生動傳神的香港方言詞語，似乎可以產生正面作用，豐富學生的寫作表達能力。這是一個問題的兩個方面，如果在教學處理上沒有比較明確的方向，教師與學生將會在在感到無所適從。

這是一個值得關注的問題。我們爲此特別選擇香港方言詞語作爲考察的焦點。中文教師，作爲學生學習語文的指引者，成了我們這次調查的對象。究竟他們對學生寫作時使用香港方言詞語，抱什麼態度？改還是不改？爲什麼改？爲什麼不改？哪些改？哪些不改？這些都是值得探討的問題。

這個調查的目的，正是希望獲得有關資料，初步了解實際情況。調查的結果，將有助於掌握一般中文教師對香港方言詞語的態度，有助於探索這些詞語進入書面共同語的種種問題，也有助於制訂更明確的本地中文教學策略。

## 文獻回顧

### 資料來源

粵語研究的文獻可從兩方面發見。第一方面是研討會上發表的論文。香港是一個國際大都會，每年均有舉辦不同規模的經常性或非經常性的語文研討會。由於香港是粵語區，涉及粵語研究的論文尤其受到本地與會者的重視。這些研究論文能夠提供最新的研究信息。第二方面是非研討會上發表的研究成果，這部份的資料比較容易在語文的學術刊物或著作中找到。內容一般比較成熟，很有參考價值。

### 研究範圍

香港方言詞語的研究可以從不同的範圍進行，大概可分爲三個方面：

(1) 對比方面：香港方言與普通話的比較研究，通常可分語音、詞匯、語法三個領域進行。其中的對比研究最惹人注目，值得注意的是

香港方言與普通話詞語不同的數目極多。據李敬忠（1990）的統計，以專門收錄粵語詞語的工具書爲例，《廣州話方言詞典》5078個詞條中，有76.9%與普通話不相同，《廣州話・普通話口語詞對譯手冊》8000多詞條中，不相同的有98%。李氏的異同率當然有值得商榷的地方，但無可否認香港方言詞語與普通話差異情況相當嚴重，是不容忽視的現象。

(2) 詞語方面：就詞語本身進行研究，諸如語音、語義、語源、修辭、語法等方面均包括在內。

(3) 教學方面：指的是與教學有關的研究，諸如語誤分析、轉換策略等方面均包括在內。

### 本研究的範圍

我們的調查主要屬於前述第三個方面的研究。前兩方面的研究雖然與本調查的方向不同，但提供的資料可供運用。例如，我們可以從中選擇要調查的詞語，瞭解到這些詞語的特點，及找到詞語分類的根據等。至於第三方面的研究，本研究雖屬此範疇，但我們從中找不到相同或相類似的研究資料。我們僅能從一些稍有聯繫的研究中獲得啟發。Hebert D. Pierson（1988）曾經調查香港青少年對語言和種族的態度，並利用社會語言學和社會心理學的理論去解釋調查結果。這個調查最後歸結出種種語言的態度或看法，讓人們瞭解到被調查者所抱持的觀念。但是態度總歸是態度，所謂「聽其言，觀其行」，我們認爲沒有被調查者所作行爲的數據支持的態度很值得懷疑。而且描述態度的句子往往要運用表示程度的詞語，所以單純調查態度而獲得的資料難免帶有相對的因素，使用時要特別小心。本研究所調查的語言態度則是從統計語言行爲的數量而獲得的，是從語言行爲去推論語言態度（參見4.3量度態度的方法）。

## 調查方法

### 不記名問卷

調查採用調查研究法 (survey research method) 中的填答問卷方式進行。問卷屬不記名性質，方便答卷人放心填寫。

### 調查對象

在確定調查對象前，我們曾考慮過七類調查對象，包括中小學語文教師、大專講師、普通話教師、作家、出版界人士、廣告界人士和新聞界人士。

調查不同的對象，會獲得不同的結果。每種調查結果反映了每種調查對象的態度，各自有各自的研究價值。如果能將各種不同的結果相互對照，將會更有助於加深對問題的認識。這次調查最後決定先調查中學語文教師，其用意在於他們是教育下一代語文的專業人員，調查他們所得的資料較具有代表性，實用的意義更大。其他對象，或者日後可以陸續調查。

### 問卷內容

問卷內容分爲（甲）、（乙）兩大部份。（甲）部份爲「答卷人個人資料」，這部份調查每位答卷者的基本資料，包括以下七個方面：

(1) 任教學校類別
(2) 任教班級（中文科）
(3) 從事中學中國語文教學工作經驗（年數）
(4) 職別
(5) 接受專上教育或師範教育的地區
(6) 母語
(7) 曾否參加普通話訓練課程

這些資料的調查結果將可以幫助：

(1) 瞭解答卷人在這七個方面的分佈情況。例如統計第（7）項資料，可以知道答卷者中接受過普通話訓練課程的教師有多少，沒有接受過的又有多少。

(2) 瞭解這些基本資料與處理態度的相關情況。例如利用第（7）項統計得出的資料，可以進一步統計知道接受過普通話訓練課程的教師的語言態度怎樣，沒有接受過的又怎樣。

（乙）部份爲「處理香港方言詞語的態度」，這部份包括下列五個問題：

(1) 你的學生在作文中使用香港方言詞語（如：巴士、杯葛、貼士、塞車……）的情況怎樣？

(2) 你認爲自己在批改時一般採用的標準是：

(3) 當你的學生在作文中使用下列詞語（不加引號）時，你會怎樣處理？（請在適用的空格

內加「V」號）

(4) 學生在作文中用上了香港方言詞語，如果你不作任何修改，有否基於下列原因？（可選擇多個答案）

(5) 學生在作文中用上了香港方言詞語，如果你加以修改，有否基於下列原因？（可選擇多個答案）

上述五個問題可以分為三組，第（1）、第（2）題是第一組，第（3）題是第二組，第（4）、第（5）題是第三組。第二組是整份問卷的主要內容，這部份調查教師對238個方言詞語的處理情況（參見問卷設計第三、四項討論）。第一、第三組是第二組的參考內容，這兩組的調查結果可以輔助說明第二組的調查結果。由於篇幅關係，本調查報告主要介紹第二組的調查結果，其他部份的調查結果這裏略去。

### 散發問卷

問卷主要經由香港大學教育學院學員（現職中學教師）在各所在中學隨意散發，部份經由郵寄傳遞。

### 回卷率

問卷共發出405份，收回384份，有效的共380份，有效回卷率達93.8%。由於有效填答問卷的教師達380位，我們相信問卷統計獲得的數據，能有效地反映香港中學語文教師對學生在作文中使用香港方言詞語的語言態度。

## 問卷設計

### 有關概念

問卷設計需要加以說明的概念包括：

(1) 詞語：指詞和詞組。

(2) 方言：方言是標準語的變體，這個觀念為一般人習慣引用。《現代漢語詞典》的解釋正是如此：方言是「一種語言中跟標準語有區別的，只在一個地區使用的話，如漢語的粵方言、吳方言等」。這裏也採用這個解釋。但是，根據社會語言學的理論，方言或語言是兩個意義十分模糊的術語，要確切界定一種語言或方言的內涵並非簡單的事情，牽涉到諸多標準，重要的有政治、文化、社會、溝通等。標準之間會相互抵觸，不同標準會界定出不同的語言（或方言）內涵。例如政治與文化標準中的「自治」(autonomy) 與「他治」(heteronomy) 因素就會影響到語言（或方言）的界限或地位。本調查之所以採用詞典的解釋，是為了方便起見。事實上，一向被人們採用的觀念亦有其合理的地方。當操相同母語的人交談的時候，大家的語言心理都會接納相互之間所說的話語是同一種語言（或方言），而不必理會這種語言（或方言）如何界定。這種習用的觀念適用於本文。

(3) 香港方言：香港方言（或叫香港話）是在香港使用的粵語，它有為數不少的詞語只在香港流通，其他粵語區的人未接觸過的話，往往不大理解。本調查由於調查的詞語中有部份是這些詞語，因而採用香港方言這個名稱，以別於廣州話這個名稱。

### 選詞範圍及原則

選詞範圍包括：

(1) 方言詞典
(2) 有關文獻
(3) 報章雜誌
(4) 學生文章

香港方言詞語（包括外來語）十分豐富，可供調查者極多。如果全部都調查，那樣會流於太濫。須得釐定原則，限定調查範圍，做起來頭緒才能更加清晰，易於進行。我們選擇詞語時曾考慮過下列原則：

(1) 本地經常使用，外地人士亦較容易從字面意義理解者；
(2) 字形與普通話的接近或相同，意義似是而非者；
(3) 本地習非成是（或約定俗成），方言使用強勢凌駕共同語，或將方言視為共同語者；
(4) 本地特有事物或潮流意識，共同語一時無以表達，需以方言表達者；
(5) 使用範圍及地域越來越廣的「擴散」(diffusion) 方言詞語；
(6) 詞語的語素需盡量為共同語所有；
(7) 太鄙俗的不取。

根據上述原則，調查詞語的範圍相對比較固定。當然不同的人根據上述原則所得的調查詞語會未盡相同，甚至完全不同。但是儘管如此，依原則去選詞總比隨意找詞語去調查好得多。

## 選詞數量及排列方式

在4.2所列的選詞範圍的資料中，我們選出238個詞語作實際調查。問卷中列出來的詞語數目爲240個，其中第181及第234是重覆的詞語「搞車呢」，這樣安排的用意在於考察一下答卷人填卷的一致程度。這個重覆的詞語不在統計之列。詞語選定後則採用隨意的方式排列。

## 量度態度的方法

量度態度是一件十分複雜的事情，既不能像動手術般的打開人的大腦去研究，又不能像作家刻劃人的內心世界那樣去窺測意識。量度態度往往要借助外在的手段完成。「程度判斷」與「行爲調查」是量度態度的兩種調查方法。如果取樣具有代表性，調查工作合理又進行沒有偏差，調查結果可以揭示趨勢發展或得出理論模式。這兩種方法似乎並無孰優孰劣之分，重要的是要因應調查問題的情況去採用適合的方法。本調查在設計量度詞語的接受情況方面，曾經對這兩個方法作過仔細考慮，最後決定採用結合態度的「行爲二分」法（或可稱之爲「態度行爲」法），而放棄使用程度判斷的方法。

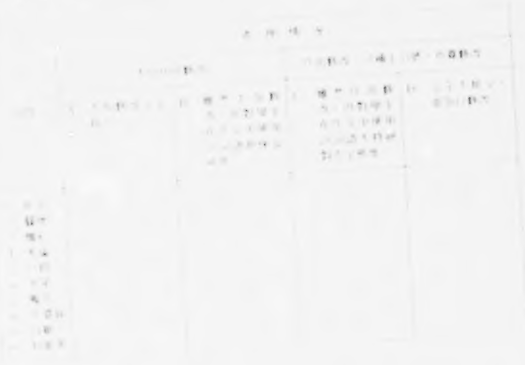
(1) 程度判斷的方法：這種方法使用分段的標準去量度詞語的接受情況。下面是其中兩個曾經考慮過的分段標準：

(a) 可以　不能決定　不可以
+2　+1　0　−1　−2
(b) 寬鬆　靈活　嚴謹　沒有準則　其他
□　□　□　□　□
（請說明＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿）

這些分段標準帶有相對的因素，一位答卷人的+2可能是另一位答卷人的+1，這位答卷人的寬鬆可能相當於別位答卷人的嚴謹。

(2) 結合態度的「行爲二分」法：下面的調查表格是基於這個方法設計的：

當你的學生在作文中使用下列詞語（不加引號）時，你會怎樣處理？請在適用的空格內加「V」號。



（問卷（乙）部第 3 題）

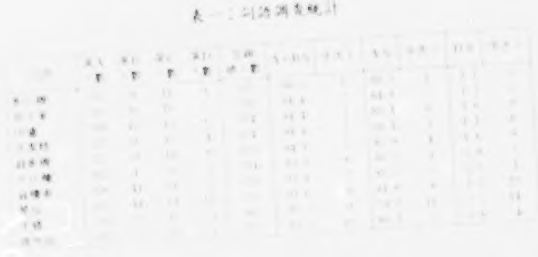
教師修改學生作文，在作出處理的行爲方面，只有改與不改兩種行爲出現。基於這種考慮，調查採用「行爲二分」的方法，將處理情況分爲「不作任何修改」及「作出修改」兩類。但是，雖然是屬於同樣的行爲，作出的人的態度會有所不同，於是我們便將態度的因素帶進行爲裏面，將「不作任何修改」這一類再分爲A、B兩項，「作出修改」這一類再分爲C、D兩項。

另外，問卷（乙）部第2題調查教師批改作文時一般採用的準則，這些準則分成寬鬆、靈活、嚴謹、沒有準則、其他這五項。調查發現，在這一題中填寫相同答案者，他們在填答（乙）部第3題所得的A、B、C、D各項百分率並不相同，甚至有很大出入。這樣，可以說明「程度判斷」的方法的確帶有相對的因素。

## 結果與分析

我們先就238個詞語的調查所得，作一個整體的觀察。

表一：詞語調查統計



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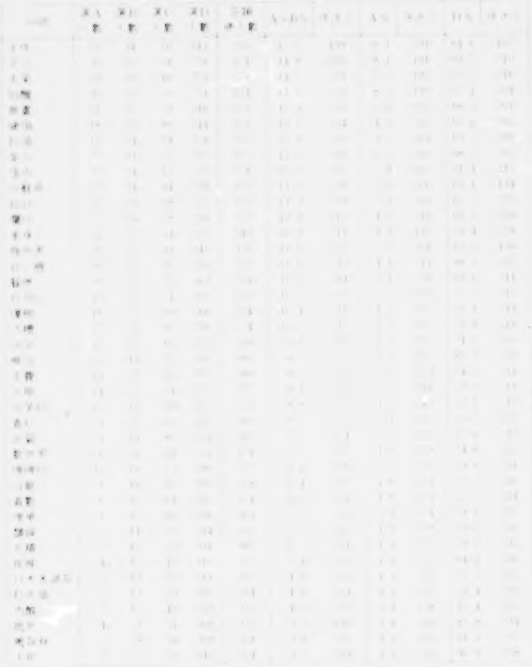

根據表一，我們初步有以下的分析結果。

第一，香港中學中文教師，一般來說，對容許方言詞語進入書面，態度比較靈活寬鬆。

由「影印機」到「光鮮」，總共115個詞語，差不多是全數的一半（48.3%），得到五成以上教師的接受（A＋B類：不作任何修改）。其中70個詞語（佔總數29.4%），得到五成以上教師的無條件完全接受（A類）。

至於被五成以上教師無條件完全不接受的詞語（D類），共有75個，跟A類詞的數據非常接近。下表更清楚說明這個情況：

| | 五成以上填卷者的選擇 | |
|---|---|---|
| | 詞　數 | 佔總數百分比 |
| A＋B | 115 | 48.3% |
| C＋D | 123 | 51.7% |
| A | 70 | 29.4% |
| D | 75 | 31.5% |

這樣平均的對比數字，說明了這些方言詞語，未能完全在書面語中確立地位，但也未有完全受到語文教師的排斥。這些數值，顯示整體來說未有出現一面倒的傾向，可以說明詞彙運用的情況很混亂，也可以說明方言詞語滲入書面語的情況頗為普遍。

中文教師一般對語文現象較敏感，有責任輔導學生掌握較為純正標準的現代漢語。這裏有半數以上的教師，容許差不多半數的方言詞出現於學生作文之中而不作任何修改。我們因此可以說，他們的態度是傾向於靈活寬鬆的。填卷人的自我評估（問卷（乙）部第（2）題），也證明了這一點。

其次，我們發現，排名高的，較被接受的，多為指涉常見事物的名詞。如「影印機」（複印機）、「原子筆」（圓珠筆）、「焗爐」（烤箱；烤爐）、「洗潔精」（洗滌劑）、「錄影機」（錄像機）等，都是香港人的生活必需品。這些名稱用語，平時口中是這麼說，報章、廣告上也是這麼寫的。它們雖然大多有完全相應的普通話詞，但還是非常流通，廣為語文教師所接受。

至於排名榜末的，接受率低於20%的幾十個詞語，大都是動詞或形容詞。如「大把」、「篤背脊」、「抵死」、「肉酸」、「打斧頭」等，這些詞雖然在香港口頭語中非常普遍，在普通話中卻難找到妥貼適合的對應詞。它們表意生動傳神，卻因為方言味道太濃，很難被書面語接受。

第三，我們特別留意到那些位於榜中央的詞語。由「平價貨」、「大褸」、「揀飲擇食」到「插蘇」、「飲茶」、「冷衫」這四十一個詞語，剛好獲得五成左右教師的接受，也就是說，同樣有五成左右的教師不接受。這種分裂現象很值得留意。

下面我們就幾類型詞語分別論述。

## 外來詞

我們這裏說的外來詞，是指在香港這個方言區裏產生或者通行的外來詞。這裏用作調查的，多數是完全音譯詞（如：沙律 salad、芝士 cheese、士巴拿 spanner），也有音譯兼加漢語語素的（如：蛋撻（撻 tart）、插蘇（蘇 socket）），以及音譯兼義的（如：維他命 vitamin）。至於傳統歸入意譯類的，如「香口膠」（口香糖）、「雪糕」（冰淇淋）等，因為全部採用漢語語素本義構詞，比較符合漢語習

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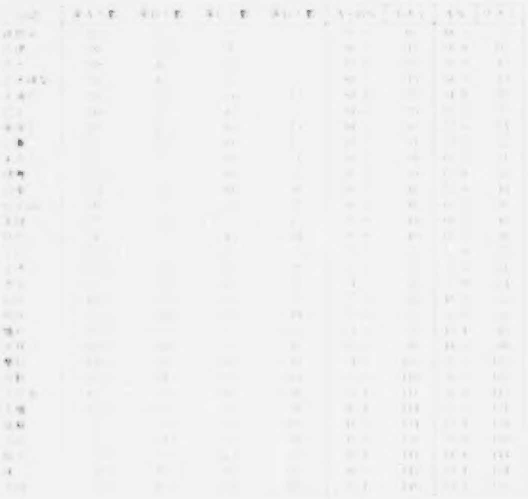
慣，表意也很清楚，我們在這不把它們歸入「外來詞」類。

這些外來詞，在香港口語中數量不少，甚至到了濫用的地步。用作調查的，只佔其中小部份，而且都曾見於報章雜誌，即見於香港的書面語。（見表三）

表三：外來詞



調查結果顯示，絕大部分詞（三十個中的廿五個）得到半數以上教師的接受；被半數以上教師完全接受的，也有十七個之多。這表明，音譯外來詞普遍被教師接受，容許出現於學生作文之中。這些詞顯然有很強的生命力。

音譯外來詞的被接受程度這樣高，我們認為有兩個主要原因。其一，這些詞在香港人的口頭語中，是極為通行的（用粵音發音，它們非常接近外語詞原音，如：巴士（英 bus）——[pa$^{55}$ si$^{35}$]、芝士（英 cheese）——[tsi$^{55}$ si$^{35}$]、啫喱（英 jelly）——[tse$^{55}$ lei$^{35}$]），而香港人的口頭語，有明顯的中英混合傾向，比較容易接受接近原音的音譯借詞。其二，這些詞一般都是日常用品，在香港的報章、廣告上早已普遍被採用，也就是說，已經在未受鑑定的情況下進入了書面語。這兩個原因說明，約定俗成的局面已經形成，並且還在強化。詞彙運用一旦成了習慣，就不那麼容易改易。因此，這些詞雖然大多數有相應的普通話詞——音譯的如「沙拉」（沙律）、「巧克力」（朱古力），意譯的如「乳酪」（芝士）、「果子凍」（啫喱）、「計程車」（的士）等——但這些方言詞本身在香港仍然有很強的生命力和競爭力，並沒有因此而受淘汰。

音譯外來詞在香港進入書面語，應該是自然的發展方向，但要被吸納到普通話裏去，問題就比較複雜。

第一個要考慮的是語言因素。香港人較難接受「巧克力」、「迪斯科」等普通話詞語，皆因受語言因素影響。同樣道理，以北京語音為標準的普通話，也不容易接受以粵音為基礎的音譯外來詞，尤其本身已有相應的音譯或意譯詞語。

第二個要考慮的因素，是不少這類詞在普通話中已有相應的意譯詞。漢語吸納的外來詞，一般都有由音譯轉為意譯的傾向，在民族共同語（標準語）的層面上，這樣的傾向尤其明顯。意譯詞一般比音譯詞有更強的生命力。事實上，從本調查可見，較少教師接受的外來詞，如：皮喼（皮箱）、咪（擴音器）、貼士（小費）、冷衫（毛衣）、梳蘇（[illegible]）等，都有切合通行的意譯的普通話對應詞。

音譯外來詞在香港粵語中受歡迎，要進入普通話卻不容易，這是一個有趣現象。結果如何，值得持續觀察研究。

最後要提一下的，是「T恤」這個詞。它由一個英文字母「T」加一個音譯語素「恤」構成，完全不符合漢語構詞習慣，而竟然有半數教師接受，無條件完全接受的，竟也接近三成。如果加上不接受但有保留的人數，則佔了七成多。這些數據顯示，「T恤」這個詞有爭議，但也有進入標準書面語的潛力。這類沒有現成對應詞，又完全不符合漢語常規的外來詞，如果能夠成功進入標準書面語及詞典，是值得研究的有趣現象。

## 同形異義詞

所謂「同形異義」，是指詞形相同的詞語在香港話和普通話意思不同。譬如「班房」一詞，香港話是指「教室」，普通話卻指「監牢」，意義截然不同。

曾子凡（1982）收錄了140多個這類詞。我們必得承認，在問卷中這些詞並未附有粵語原音

的對譯。填卷人有可能只是根據它們在普通話的意思而表示意向，這在一定程度上或者會擾亂調查結果。但這是一個方言詞語的調查，我們假設並且相信填卷人會以方言詞的含意為根據而作出判斷，調查結果應該不會受到顯著影響。這裏用作調查的共十九個。（見表三）

表三：同形異義

結果顯示，有一半（九個詞）被六成至九成的教師接受，另一半（十個詞）只有四成或更少的教師接受。其中接受度最高的「寫意」一詞，一般接受有九成，無條件完全接受也有七成半；而接受度最低的「抵死」一詞，一般不接受的有九成多，無條件完全不接受的也有六成。由「寫意」到「抵死」，十七個詞的接受度，由高到低，分佈頗為平均。

這樣的數據顯示，這類詞的被接受與否，沒有什麼明顯和特別的準則，情況非常混亂。沒有迹象顯示，這些詞因為在普通話中有不同的含意，會引起誤解，因而難以被接受。

我們的觀察是，大抵方言詞本身比較粗俗，而相應的普通話詞又比較通行的，接受度就比較低。如：抵死（該死）、着數（佔便宜）、天棚（曬台）、好心機（好耐性）、生性（有出息）、天光（天亮）、身家（家當）等，都有教師和學生較為熟悉的普通話對應詞，因此備受冷落。至於寫意（稱心快意）、地盤（工地）、非禮（耍流氓）、馬蹄（荸薺）、街市（菜市場）等，不是本身比較傳神自然，就是普通話對應詞在本地並不常見，因而屢被接受。

這些詞如果進入普通話，就很容易引起混亂。事實上，學普通話或學粵語的人，往往要在這些詞上下工夫，免得製造誤會。因此，嚴格限制這類方言詞進入書面語，應該是我們的共識。

不過，對那些較被接受，行之已久，既符合標準漢語構詞習慣，又不容易引起歧義的形同義異詞，我們認為沒有必要完全禁止使用。硬性規定要將「非禮」寫成「耍流氓」、將「馬蹄糕」寫成「荸薺糕」，並不見得就能淨化語言，反而在方言區會令書面語與口語過分脫節，缺乏生活氣息。這些詞如果被《現代漢語詞典》收錄和推廣，讓其他漢語區的人有參考依據，知所應用，就不見得是一件壞事。

特別值得留意的，是「班房」（教室）、「入伙」（搬新居）、「平價貨」（廉價貨）、「熱氣」（上火）、「醒目」（機靈）一類爭論較多的詞。它們進一步將會如何定位，很能反映香港話與普通話互相影響、滲透、角力的結果，也會為方言詞能否進入共同語，揭示更多的規律。

## 《現代漢語詞典（補編）》新收詞語

這類詞語，都是以「方言」為標誌，被編進1989年版的《現代漢語詞典（補編）》。用作調查的，共有十七個。（見表四）

表四：《現代漢語詞典補編》新收詞語

調查結果，再一次顯示混亂情況。佔了半數（共八個詞）獲得超過五成的接受度，另一半（九個詞）只有四成或以下的接受度。跟「形同義異詞」一樣，這些詞的接受度，由高到低，平均分佈。其中「高買」一詞，排名最高，一般接受佔九成，無條件完全接受佔差不多八成。而「大把」一詞，一般不接受的佔九成多，無條件

完全不接受的佔九成，排名在全榜238個詞之末。

一般來說，被收編進詞典的方言詞，應該是有較強生命力，已經廣為流傳，有極大潛力進入普通話的。事實上，能夠進入《現代漢語詞典》，應該已經是書面共同語的一部份。但調查結果顯示，教師的態度與判斷，未有受到詞典的明顯影響。或者換一個說法，《現代漢語詞典》收編方言詞的標準，似乎未能準確反映方言詞的運用實況。

諸如「大把」、「拉晚」、「喉急」、「車身」、「爛仔（[illegible]）」、「炒魷魚」、「駁嘴」、「[illegible]」這類詞，已見於權威詞典，香港語文教師卻不接受，確實是很有趣的現象。這個調查本來令我們得到一個印象，香港教師對本地方言詞的處理手法是傾向靈活寬鬆的。但對上述幾個詞，他們卻表現了絕不寬容的保守，或者是嚴謹的態度。我們認為，原因可能是：這些詞雖然生動，卻流於鄙俗，難登大雅之堂。教師從語文教學角度出發，寧雅毋俗，寧嚴勿寬，自然不鼓勵學生亂用濫用。

不過，我們覺得，如果這些詞表意明確，傳神生動，雖然或嫌稍俗（其實兩者往往互為因果），還是值得推廣提倡的，這有助於豐富普通話書面語的詞匯與表現力。

譬如「巴士」一詞，就很能說明問題。在六十年代以前，這個詞在香港是身分不明的，是難登大雅之堂的，一就是「坐引號監」，使用時要加上引號，一就是被「公共汽車」所代替。經過多年來的角力競爭，「巴士」一詞在香港已經生根定位，現在更被收進詞典，是「時來風送滕王閣」，地位更穩固了。同樣道理，「駁嘴」、「喉急」這些詞，最後應該也可以擺脫引號，刑滿出監，堂堂正正做書面語詞。

## 古漢語詞

粵語詞匯中，保留了不少古代漢語的成分。這些詞我們往往掛在嘴邊，習以為常，但在普通話中，它們已經消亡，或者只存在於古漢語熟語之中。這裡用作調查的，共有十二個（見表五）。

表五：古漢語詞

|  | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | A+B% | 排名 | A% | 排名 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 雞翼 | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| 頸鏈 | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| 雞髀 | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |

調查結果顯示，只有三個詞獲得五成以上教師的接受。這三個詞分別是「雞翼」、「頸鏈」及「雞髀」，都是和日常生活息息相關的事物。這三個詞早已常見於報章廣告、公司宣傳之中，比它們的普通話對應詞通行得多。其餘九個詞，接受度都低於四成，這看來是這類詞的基本處境。如「落雨」（下雨）、「硬頸」（頑固）、「卒之」（終於）、「行路」（走路）、「幾多」（多少）、「即刻」（立刻、馬上）等，接受度都低於三成。它們的普通話對應詞早已深入民間，廣見於書面，它們再難以取而代之，或者另佔一席位。

至於較具爭議的一些詞，如「飲茶」（喝茶、下館子）、「行運」（走運）、「請飲」（請客），因為地方色彩較濃，不容易進入共同語，但在本地也不容易被共同語完全取代。雖然目前還是傾向於被排斥於書面語之外，但還是得到三成至四成的支持。這幾個詞的命運，同樣會顯示方言能否進入書面共同語的規律，值得我們留意。

## 詞序相反

粵語中有不少詞，跟普通話的意義完全相同，但語素的先後卻剛好相反，如普通話說「客人」、「已經」、「要緊」，香港人卻說「人客」、「經已」、「緊要」，是剛好倒過來說的，但意思沒有分別。在本調查中，這類詞共有六個（見表六）。

表六：詞序相反

|  | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |

我們在這裡也有一個有趣的發現。結果顯示，除了「緊要」一詞受排斥外，其餘五個詞都備受爭議，介乎被接受與不被接受之間。其中「人客」、「宵夜」、「歡喜」、「經已」四詞，得分極爲接近，五成上下。

雖然這類詞的發展傾向目前難下定論，正反意見不相伯仲。既然這類詞除了與普通話對應詞詞序有別之外，其餘方面一概相同，接受與否的根據，就是語言習慣了。

習慣是很難改變的，也沒有必要改變。如果大家可以自然地接受，就可以相安無事，讓詞序不同的詞共同存在。

不過，這類詞很多屬於偏正結構，普通話是修飾成份在前，中心詞在後，粵語則剛好相反。粵語這樣的詞序結構，嚴格來說，是不符合現代標準漢語的習慣的。我們是否可以以此爲根據，定下一些取捨的準則？這是值得深入討論的。

這類詞還有不少，如「質素」、「[illegible]」、「利便」、「取錄」、「[illegible]」、「擠擁」等，值得集中調查，獲取更多數據，以便進一步探討。

## 結語

調查結果，正如我們上面分析，是頗有啟發性的。對於「香港中文」的詞語運用現狀，以及中文教師對方言詞語進入書面語的態度，提供了很有參考價值的數據。

我們在這裏再簡要列出調查的結果：

（一）香港中學中文教師，對容許本地方言詞語進入書面語，態度一般比較靈活寬鬆。
（二）其中指涉常見事物的名詞，較被接受。被接受程度較低的，多爲動詞或形容詞。
（三）佔全部被調查詞語六分一的詞語，剛好有一半教師接受，有一半教師不接受，呈現分裂現象。
（四）音譯外來詞普遍被接受。
（五）形同義異詞的接受度，分佈不均，情況混亂。
（六）《現代漢語詞典（補編）》新收詞語，接受度與形同義異詞一樣，分佈不均，情況混亂。
（七）古漢語詞，一般不被接受。
（八）詞序相反詞，備受爭議，介乎被接受與不被接受之間。

我們認爲，香港中文教師對本地方言詞語進入書面語採取比較靈活寬鬆的態度，既反映了香港語文運用的現狀，也揭示了可能的趨勢。

香港已經成了廣州以外的另一個粵方言中心，甚至有取而代之的潛力。香港方言中的詞彙，已經大量湧現於本地的書面語之中，也正在透過不同途徑滲入民族共同語。

我們的基本態度是，作爲本地交際、教學及實際應用，方言詞彙是應該酌情容許進入書面語的。作爲對外交際，別人不明白你說什麼，這樣的香港方言就一定行之不遠，因此不宜推廣。

面對現實情況，我們有三個具體建議：

（一）透過大學課程、師資培訓，加强普通話詞語與香港方言詞語對應的認知與訓練。
（二）在中小學加强加快推廣普通話教學，讓中小學生掌握更多民族共同語的通行詞彙。
（三）輯錄本地作家作品，集中整理一些已經進入本地書面語的方言詞彙，以便於進行規範、推廣的工作。

上述建議，看來似乎有矛盾，其實是有意義而又實際可行的工作。香港人如果能夠對內用生動流暢的、充滿本地色彩的香港書面語溝通，對外（其他方言區）又能夠用全民族共用的普通話書面語交流，那應該是最理想不過的。至於哪些方言詞語能夠行之久遠，廣被接受，就順其自然，由語言角力的結果去決定好了。

最後，我們這個調查，從規模方面來說，雖然未算宏大全面，從方法方面來說，雖然可能尚有不足之處——但作爲一個開拓性質的嘗試與摸索，我們相信已大胆的踏出了有意思的一步。正因如此，我們特別樂意接受批評、指正，希望能進一步改善及發展這方面的研究。

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# 香港小學生提前寫作的研究

謝錫金
香港大學

許賀榕貞
漢基國際學校

[illegible]

**Composing Text in Chinese: Primary One or Primary Three?**

According to the Chinese Language Syllabuses for Hong Kong (Curriculum Development Council, 1990), the teaching of Chinese composition should begin at Primary Three, and this guideline is generally observed in the mainstream primary schools. However, in some international schools, where Chinese is taught as a second/foreign language, the teaching of Chinese composition begins at Primary One. This means that the second language writers in international schools start writing Chinese text earlier than those whose mother tongue is Chinese, and it is possible that they will learn and develop their writing skills faster.

This research set out to study the composition teaching-learning process in three international schools. It was found that teachers of Chinese in these schools used a teaching approach different from the traditional approach used in the mainstream schools. They provided the pupils with opportunities for active exploration with writing in Chinese; they also had high expectations of the pupils and gave them the necessary support and encouragement. The pupils developed confidence as writers and enjoyed the ownership of their writing. The teachers also allowed the pupils to use some kind of interlanguage when necessary.

## 前言

語言是思維的工具，文字的工具。口頭說的是語，寫下來的是文。語文能力是由語文練習中得來。傳統的語文教學方法是讓學生多讀、多作，希望他們從多讀的經驗中，學習到寫的技巧。事實上，寫作是一個複雜的過程，學生要把心裏中思想的過程，經過不同形式的轉換，才能用文字寫下來（謝1992）。

一個牙牙學語，話也說不太清楚，更不會唸書的孩子已經有寫的概念。我們仔細觀察一下，不難發現很多學前的孩子抓著筆、鉛筆或蠟筆，在紙上或書上畫著不成文字的線條。如果大人肯用心的細問孩子，他畫的是甚麼？一定會很驚奇的發現，這在大人眼中的鬼畫符卻大有文章。跟著年齡的增長，這些鬼畫符將越來越清晰，漸而演變成可讀的文字。

很多活潑可愛的孩子，在大約一歲半時，已懂得利用鉛筆把媽媽的電話地址簿寫得一塌糊塗；如果問她在媽媽的簿子裏畫的是甚麼？她很得意的說：「我想寫字。」

不論寫的內容是甚麼，總有一個目的，例如寫信、寫電話留言、寫東西的標籤、抄食譜、寫文學都有一個目的。小孩子看到大人這些寫的活動，就會有一個意念去模仿。如果大人告訴孩子他們寫的是甚麼，讓孩子明白大人所寫的東西都是有目的的，「寫」這活動是有意義的（Tuyu and Pauling, 1989）。

在孩子成長的過程中，他們自然地想要「寫」些東西、故事，藉使表現一下他們的寫技巧。他們有豐富的想像力，雖然他們所知道的詞彙非常有限，但是，他們有強烈的發表慾及滿腦子的幻想力；如果能適當的引發他們潛在的創作興趣，便可以培養到他們的寫作能力（Graves, 1984）。

小學生甚麼年紀開始寫作？這是一個很具爭議的論題。香港大部分中文小學都遵照《中國語文科課程綱要》（1990）的指示，小三才開始篇章寫作，小一、小二以作句為主。

研究員曾經訪問三間參與英國國家寫作計劃的學校（National Writing Project）的學校，發覺在這些學校就讀的幼稚園學生，已經開始學習寫作。研究員亦曾參觀三間香港國際小學，這些小學以中文作為第二語文；但他們的學生，小一已開始篇章寫作。中國黑龍江省的小學，有些利用「注音識字，提前讀寫」的方法，學生可以從

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一年級開始寫作（李楠1985）。

爲甚麼香港國際小學能培養小學生提早寫作？是不是他們揠苗助長？爲甚麼香港中文小學小三才開始篇章寫作？是不是他們保守，拖慢了學生的學習能力？爲了解答這些問題，研究員利用個案研究法，探討「提早寫作」的可行性。以下是一間國際小學的寫作教學研究報告。

## 提早寫作的可能性

研究對象是小學，它一向是以雙語及雙文化 (bilingual and biculture) 作爲學校的教學宗旨。不論中文老師、英文老師都一致鼓勵學生儘量在作文時，把他們想說的話用他們會的文字寫下來，至於中文字寫得對不對或英文字拼得對不對，都不是學生寫作時需要考慮的問題。

在小學一、二年級英文教學上，該校採用 (emergent writing) 鼓勵五、六歲的兒童把他們心裏所想的畫 (scribble) 下來；因爲一個五、六歲的孩子能拼寫的字實在有限，而 (emergent writing) 鼓勵孩子用自己發明的字 (invented spelling) 去寫；然後，再說給老師或大人聽他們寫的是甚麼。

該校的中文教學以國語 (mandarin, 或叫普通話) 爲教學語言，並採用注音符號爲學習國語的音標，而不用漢語拼音。中文的書寫不像英文，聽到一個字的發音，小朋友可以猜到大概可以用那幾個字母拼出來。例：skl (school), coz (because)。而用注音符號，小朋友就能像寫英文一樣，聽到中文可以把中文拼音拼出來。例：ㄧㄢ　顏　ㄙㄜ　色

利用孩子的發表慾和幻想力，配合適當的工具——invented spelling 或注音符號——就能提早引發孩子的創作興趣，提早培養他們的寫作能力。孩子不會因爲寫不出某個字而覺得要放棄他想寫卻寫不出的字，思維也不會因爲要寫不出的字而受阻礙；孩子得以順順暢暢用 invented spelling 或注音符號或圖畫寫下他們想要說的話，寫作不再是一件困難的事，寫作變成一件隨心所欲，自我表現的愉快經驗。

## 爲甚麼採用ㄅ、ㄆ、ㄇ、ㄈ、教授小學國語

很多人都不明白爲甚麼該校採用注音符號爲教國語的音標，而不用漢語拼音。對一般人來說，漢語拼音用的英文字母都耳熟能詳，很容易上手，不像注音符號37個音符比較難記。在解釋這個問題之前，先說說該校學生的一般背景。教學最重要一個因素之一要「因材施教」。在了解了該校學生背景之後，就不難明白爲甚麼該校要取注音符號而捨漢語拼音了。

該校是一所英制的國際學校，學生來自不同的文化背景及家庭環境；大致上可分爲以英文爲母語的外籍兒童或回歸的外籍華僑學童及以廣東話爲母語的本地學童。

該校自1983年創校以來，現在已發展爲一所自學前組 (reception) 到中六組織完全、設備完善的學校。學前組的學生的平均學齡是四歲。以此類推，小學一、二年級學生的平均年齡是五、六歲。現以二年級的語文教學爲例，簡略說明教學的安排和編制：小學二年級的學生以小班制上課。每班二十五個學生。上英文課時，由一位英文老師及一位助理老師同時教授；上中文課時，一班二十五個學生則一分爲二，一組只有十二或十三個學生，每組有一個老師上課。每組學生包括以英語爲母語的學生及以廣東話爲母語的學生。各個學生的語文水準參差很大。教學用語，除中文課以國語教授，其他各科如數學、科學、社會甚而體育、音樂等，均以英語教授。

學前組的學生一面學英語26個字母，一面學注音符號；如果都用英語音符，一個四歲多的孩子怎麼能理解同一個音符在英文是一個讀法，在中文又是另一個讀法呢？例如：在漢語拼音 j讀雞；q 讀七；x 讀希；g讀哥；漢語拼音所採用的英文字母做音符，這些音符的發音與英語只有少部分相同，而絕大部分都不同。

雖然，注音符號37個符號要花點精神去記，小孩子的學習能力與成年人最大的不同處就是小孩子的記憶力特別強，而理解力非常弱。要小孩記37個注音符號沒甚麼困難，但要他們去分辨漢語拼音 she 讀奢；song 讀松；he 讀喝；sun 讀桑；pie 讀瞥等就困難得多了。

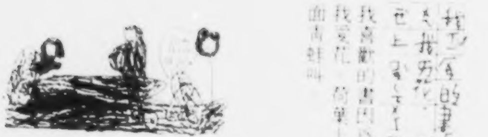
另外，注音符號的ㄅㄆㄇㄈ一來筆劃簡單，二來可以幫助小孩練習寫字；也更符合小學一、二年級學生的書寫能力。如遇有不會寫的字，就可以用注音符號代替。學生可以提早練習寫作，而減少學生因為不會寫某個字而寫作受阻的困難（鄧 1990）。

樣本（一）

我喜歡蜻蜓，蜻蜓飛來飛去

這位小朋友只會寫三個字：我、來、去；但是，他用注音符號通順地寫下一句完整美麗的句子。

樣本（二）



我喜歡的書因為我愛花，荷葉上面青蛙叫。

這位小朋友只會寫五個字：我、的、書、花和叫；他因注音符號的幫助而能寫下他想要說的話，不受因為不會寫某些字所限而不能表達他的意思。

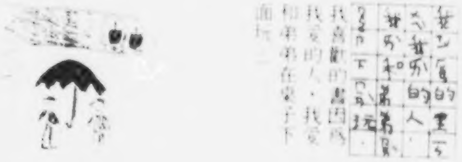
## 畫畫又寫寫

這校的小朋友在學前班（reception）就開始認注音符號，但不寫，對每個符號只求認，這是他們生平第一次接觸到注音符號。在這個階段，每天有半小時中文時間，老師利用圖畫、故事書為輔助教具，不斷和小朋友用國語交談，做遊戲，務使小朋友能聽懂，且能模仿著說簡單的句子。

一年級時，小朋友開始學寫注音符號，每學一個音符，都以一個字或詞來加強他們的記憶。同時，每個小朋友在一年級開始都有一本看圖說話簿，上半部空白處可畫圖畫，下半部的格子可寫字。

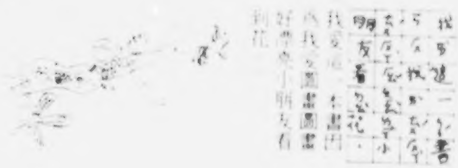
例如：當教到注音符號「ㄋ」時，小朋友會想到小鳥（ㄋㄧㄥㄠ）、大牛（ㄋㄧㄟㄧ）、你（ㄋㄥㄧ）們等。小朋友可以在他們的簿子裏畫一隻小鳥，一隻牛，在格子裏寫小ㄋㄧㄥㄠ（鳥）、大ㄋㄧㄟㄡ（牛）；藉著這畫畫的創作，可以加強他們對文字「小鳥」、「大牛」的記憶，更可啓發小朋友的聯想力。配合著注音符號、字、詞的教學，有的小朋友已經可以寫出「我有一隻小鳥」、「小鳥會唱歌」或「我愛小鳥」等句子。

樣本（三）



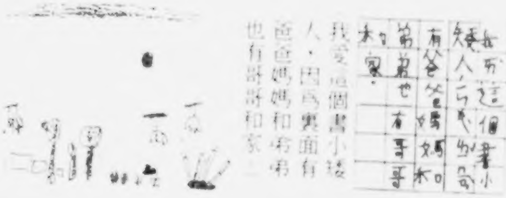
我喜歡的書因為我愛的人，我愛和弟弟在桌子下面玩。

樣本（四）



我愛這一本書因為我愛圖畫圖畫好學堂小朋友有到花。

樣本（五）



我愛這個書小孩人，因為裏面有爸爸媽媽和弟弟也有哥哥和家。

在這些小朋友的作品中，不因為「愛」、「喜歡」、「因為」、「裏面」、「下面」等字筆劃多不會寫而令小朋友不敢用，他們用注音符號代替字，輕輕鬆鬆，順順利利地表達了他們要表達的意思。就算把注音符號拼錯了，都不要緊，當他們讀給老師聽時，老師再更正仍不遲。

注音符號不止可以幫助小朋友提早寫作，更可幫助學生免受母語干擾，而造成發音不純正的弊病（李 1988）。

## 怎樣引導小朋友寫作

二年級的小朋友經過一年級的訓練，寫作的能力更強，注音符號運用的更純熟，而且，字學

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會了很多漢字。凡是他們會寫的字，老師都要求他們寫字，不用注音符號。除非某些小朋友程度比較差，記不得那些字，老師也會准許他們以注音符號暫時代替。但大多數小朋友都喜歡寫字，對他們來說，寫字比用注音符號更具成就感。注音符號只是輔導的工具，而不是取代漢字。就好像在英文寫作中，小朋友可以用自己發明的字(invented spelling)寫作，卻仍要學會正確的拼法。

每年學校五月開學之後，都有一個班級郊遊。郊遊回來，小朋友們都要寫一篇遊記：今天，他們去龜背灣。

### 寫作引導：題目：龜背灣遊

首先，老師和學生談談他們郊遊那一天做了些甚麼？幫助學生從腦中長期記憶系統提取寫作資料，讓學生回想一下當天的事情。老師問學生一連串的問題，他們可以用他們會的語言——英語、國語或廣東話——回答。這時，老師就可以當詞彙「輸入」的工作（謝 1990年）。

提示：問一：「昨天我們去那裏玩？」
「Turtle Cove」

這時，老師會畫一隻龜，在白板上，教他們「烏龜」這個詞，並指自己的背部及烏龜背部，教他們「龜背」這一詞。同時，用注音符號教學生正確的讀音。這是「輸入」資料的工作。並且，提醒他們可以用注音符號代替「龜」字。

「如果你不會寫這個字（指龜字），怎麼辦？」

「寫ㄍㄨㄟˉ」

所以，就是不會寫這龜字，因為可以用注音符號，一點也不會阻撓小朋友的寫作思路。

問二：「你們怎麼去？走路？游泳？還是飛去的？」

問三：「你們帶了甚麼東西一起去？」

問四：「有沒有帶東西去吃？」

問五：「在龜背灣你們看到些甚麼？」

在對話的過程中，老師一直不斷地把學生的回答寫在白板上，遇到比較新的詞都用圖加以象形：如雜耍　　，貝殼　　等，這些詞，學生在英文中已學過，但是，還不知道中文怎麼說。

討論完畢，每個學生開始寫作。通常一般學生都先畫一幅圖，才開始寫故事。雖然，這些學生因為學的是國語，就有「我手寫我口」的便利，卻仍因訓練不夠，和受母語干擾，而會一邊寫一邊來問「怎麼寫……說……in 國語」；如果他們問的詞是他們日常生活中用到的，就鼓勵他們自己想一想，並用注音符號寫下來，等寫好了給老師看時，老師再幫他們改。如果是比較少用的詞，老師就會寫下來給他們看。

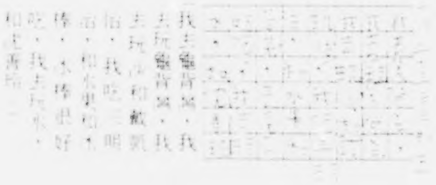
學生一寫完，便急不及待的拿來給老師看，偶而會有一、二個學生沒畫出他寫的故事，老師就要他先畫了圖再拿來讀給同學聽。

### 第一稿校正

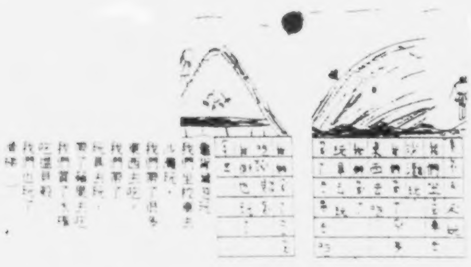
學生寫好拿給老師看時，老師便要他自己讀給同學聽他寫的是甚麼。語文能力強的學生，往往在讀的過程中會發現自己那裏漏了字或用錯了詞而造成不通順的句子。

以英語為母語的學生常寫出英語句式的中文句子。在這情形下，老師就用國語問學生問題，讓他在對話中自己找出錯在那裏。

**樣本（六）：英式句例**



**樣本（七）：廣東話句例**



英式句例：我去玩沙和戴凱怡。（樣本六）

老師問：你和誰去玩沙？

學生答：我和戴凱怡去玩沙

老　師：你寫的是甚麼？再讀一次給我聽。

學　生：我去玩沙和戴凱怡。

老　師：應該怎麼說？你和誰去玩沙？

學　生：我和戴凱怡去玩沙。

從語文教學的研究報告中，證實兒童在學話過程中出現的語病，經過不斷地與成人和小夥伴的交際，或「獨白」進行自我矯正，使自己的語文逐步改進而完善。（呂 1989）

說廣東話的孩子，有時會用注音直接把廣東話拼出來。

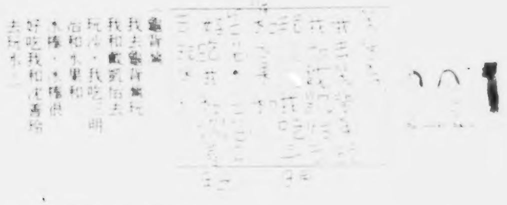
**廣東式句例：我們ㄨㄟㄅ貝殼　（樣本）**

在這學生的語彙裏，沒有「找」字，他就把「搵」用注音拼成「ㄨㄟㄅ」，這時候，我就會告訴學生「搵」是廣東話，國語要用「找」。

經過一個個讀給老師聽後，老師要每個學生再重抄一遍，並且，一定要有一幅圖畫來表達他所寫的故事。思想不能集中的學生，老師通常要他們先畫圖再寫下他圖畫的內容。因為孩子們都愛畫畫，畫畫可以提高他們寫作的興趣。

在第一次校正時，老師還要學生想一想甚麼字是學過的，學過的字，老師一定要求學生記住，會寫，寫錯了，再教一次，並要求謄正。

**樣本（八）：第二稿**



## 第二稿校正及定稿

當學生謄清以後，他們還要再讀一次給同學聽，看看還有甚麼不通順的句子；如果他們要求多學些字，老師會按學生程度增加一些詞彙或生字。

一般情形，寫了第二遍，再讀給同學聽後，就算暫時做完了。最後一次謄稿要等下一次上課時才做，通常都在一、兩個星期內做。連續太多重複，會令學生感到煩悶。

如果要學生做第三次謄稿，老師一定告訴他們是為了要把他們的作品釘在佈告板上，當他們父母來學校時，可以看到誰寫的最好，最乾淨、整齊。這樣可以激發學生的好勝心，而忘了是第三次抄寫。圖畫不必重畫，老師會用他們第一次畫的，剪剪貼貼。

每個月，教室裏佈告板上的作品都是這樣做出來的。學生每個月至少要寫一篇作文，每篇作文大約抄寫二次或三次就算完成了。不過老師盡量不要求學生寫第三次。

## 總結

上述個案的學校和另外三間國際學校都能培養小學生提前寫作。雖然中文在這些學校只是第二語言，但因他們的課程設計觀念較新，而教學法亦較活，所以他們的語文老師，能打破香港中文小學寫作教學的框框，讓學生提前寫作。以下綜合記述和討論他們的寫作教學新概念和教學法。

首先，國際學校的語文老師鼓勵他們的學生用多種形式表達思想和感情，並不期望學生用準確的句子；更讓學生放膽試用文字、詞、標點等，也讓學生探索文字和篇章的功能。結果學生享受寫作過程，建立信心，深信自己是作家。而作品也是屬於他們自己的，寫作不是為了交功課，不是為了老師。但大部分中文小學語文老師，在初小階段，已要求學生用標準語文，要學生寫合符語法的句子，而學生能力有限，只好把篇章寫作推遲到三年級。

小孩子學語言，在口語到書面語之間，有一種「過渡語言」(Inter language)，那是一種不純正和不標準的書面語。上述的研究對象，准許一、二年級的學生用「過渡語言」，所以學生能提前寫作。這種語言很混雜，包括了學生的母語、圖畫、各種符號，注音符號等。有些學者認為這些「過渡語」會污染語言，也會減少學生接觸標準語的機會。這些理論並不正確（謝 1992），只要老師盡快幫助學生改正「過渡語」，學生的寫作能力便能提高。反而在中文小學的學生，老師不准寫「過渡語」，學生因為沒有機會表達自己，只能用簡單的標準語，零碎的寫作。大部分中文小學的學生，沒有信心學寫作。

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本研究對象很重視注音符號教學，幫助學生把口語記錄下來。我們相信除了注音符號外，還可以利用其他方法，例如圖畫、「XY」字母、甚至「留空」等，只要學生有機會說明這些自創符號，而老師亦能提供書面語「轉換」這些符號，學生便有學習機會。注音符號和漢語拼音符號都並不易學，也是書面語，也可能加重學生的學習負擔。現時香港學生需要學習的語言已不少，包括三種口語（粵語、普通話、英語）和三種書面語（現代漢語、古代漢語、英語），他們學這些語言已感吃力，能否再加學其他書面語，教育界應做一些客觀的研究。本研究研究員認為如果學生已學會了注音符號或拼音符號，則可以利用這些已有語言幫助寫作；如果學生未能掌握拼音符號，研究員相信圖畫、「留空」等簡單「過渡語」更為有效。（謝，1992）

這間國際學校的語文老師對學生有較高的期望，相信學生的能力，讓學生寫他們熟習的題目，讓他們選擇自己喜歡寫的題材，讓學生有機會積極參與和探索，學生的作品亦有機會展覽，這些都會增強了他們的寫作信心和興趣。所以提前寫作是可能的，希望中文小學老師試試這些教學法。

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# 如何在學生作文中分辨哪些是用心寫的哪些是敷衍了事的

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[illegible]

An Attempt to Separate Essays Written with Involvement from Those Written Perfunctorily

This paper is evolved from the concern that it is not uncommon that students write their assignments and essays perfunctorily. In most cases, this kind of essay is unsatisfactory and is given remedial treatment. However, the perfunctory products may have a psychological rather than a linguistic origin (i.e. caused by students' "not putting their hearts to writing" rather than "not having the linguistic competence"). Language teachers must therefore have an understanding of what the student's real problem is in writing before any pedagogic improvement can be devised. We need some kind of device to guard against any false interpretation of students' performance caused by those products.

This paper reports on a diagnostic process to separate the flawed essays which are written with involvement from those written perfunctorily by students in their writing assignments. The process consists of three steps of observation: (1) the overall quality of the essays, (2) the discourse types of the essays, and (3) the discoursal structure of the compositions in relation to maturity of written communication. The process has been put to test in a pilot study. It was found that by going through the steps of the process, students' essays can be classified along a gradient of degree of involvement in writing. It is argued that using such a diagnostic device one can attain a better understanding of the students' linguistic and non-linguistic problems in writing and plan pedagogic improvements accordingly.

## 前言

作文教學當然包括寫作練習，從中了解學生的困難，並觀察其進度。不過，學生對這種練習可能抱不同態度，有的用心，有的敷衍。產生不同態度的原因，暫作別論；學生因寫作態度不同，寫出來的文字也有用心的和敷衍的分別。這種差別與寫作水平的高下不一定一致：倘學生水平低，即使用心寫，不一定寫得好；而敷衍之作，若學生的基礎較好，還是可以過得去的。問題是：教師或研究者若不在意，把作文敷衍而出現的語文毛病，看得認真，以爲是學生的真正困難，就易犯判斷錯誤，影響教學了。所以，分辨學生習作中，哪些是用心的文字，哪些屬於敷衍了事，是同樣重要的課題。

本文即就這點提供一個觀察過程和簡報一次試驗的結果。

觀察過程主要分三步驟，依次爲：判斷學生作文的整體表現，區分學生作文的篇章類型，區分學生篇章的表達是否成熟。其中牽涉的一些理論，概述如下。

## 理論及研究基礎

### 一、學生作文的整體表現 (Overall Quality of the Essays by Students)

籠統地評定一篇文字的優劣，屬於整體印象的判斷 (holistic judgement)，即給一篇文字列入好卷、平平之作、中卷、或劣卷的範疇。這種判斷方式，表面看來，相當粗疏，而支持這方法的論點認爲寫作是一種多元而複雜的活動，所以由之而成的文字，應宜整體去進行判斷，不應分割地判斷 (White, 1984)。

整體判斷最令人疑慮的是同一篇文字，在不同的人看來，由於著眼於不同部分，因而結果迥異：甲認爲屬優卷，乙認爲屬劣卷……；或結果表面相同，涵義不一：甲、乙都評是優卷，但甲指

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內容豐富，乙則因文中多飾美之詞。就這問題，有些研究可供參考：

Diederich et. al. (1961) 發現一篇文章中最受閱卷員注重的依次是意念 (idea)，結構 (form) 特色 (flavor)、字體、標點 (mechanics) 和用字 (wording)。研究指出，其中內容（或意念）和結構尤為重要。

Freedman et. al. (1983) 證實內容、結構、句子結構和字體、標點等四個因素是判斷文字優劣的原則。其中內容、結構更是閱卷人最重視的兩個因素。

Breland & James (1983)發現在20項文章特徵中，有5個特徵最為重要，其重要性依次為：全文結構、主旨、事實根據、精闢見解、句子結構。這些特徵最受評卷員注意。

看來，文章的內容和結構最起判斷作用。其他如用字造句和字體標點等，則屬次要。Diederich (1974)於是以內容和結構為中心，描述一般學生作文內的優卷、中卷和劣卷的特徵，作為參考。

### 二、篇章類型 (Discourse Types)

這裏所指的篇章類型是從寫作的意義來看，不是指實用意義的篇章形式（如書信、通告）。寫作基本上是以書面文字表達作者情意的活動，不一定合於俗約的傳訊形式（如書信、記錄、通告，以至廣告）。前者是寫作的表達意義，後者屬於社會功能意義。本文只討論前者。Emig (1971)認為學生的作文大體可分成兩類：回溯性的 (reflexive writing) 和外延性的 (extensive writing)。回溯性的文字主要表達作者自身的經驗和感想，寫作時不一定有假想的讀者，通常作者亦是讀者；內容多屬個人感想感受，行文隨意所至，沒有特定格式。外延性的文字表達作者與人溝通的意圖；所表達的多屬客觀內容，行文方向明確，整篇體段清晰，多陳述語調（1971第4頁）。

### 三、篇章結構與書面表達的成熟程度 (Relation between Discoursal Structure and Maturity of Written Communication)

書面文字固然可用以表達作者情意，而所表達的內容是否清楚，往往與篇章結構互為表裏。Britton, et. al.（1975）和 Shaughnessy（1977）都認為學生的作文，有不少像是他們喃喃自語的書面記錄，行文沒有組織，也不知所云（這觀點源自 Vygotsky 提出內在語 inner speech 的看法1962）。相對地，有些作文則能顯示作者表達情意的目的，且反映在文章結構上。

Scardamalia 和 Bereiter（1987）認為整篇文章結構可反映行文時的思考方式，大致分類：第一類的運思方式是圍繞作文題目，想到哪裏即寫到哪裏，其間並沒有緊密的意義關係。而作文題目，只用來輔助聯想或記憶有關內容。因為即記即寫，全篇內容，看似相關，實散亂無序；全文亦無組織結構可言。這種運思方式，正好和上文說有些學生的作文像是自言自語的記錄，看不到明確的表達意向；寫成的文字很不成熟 (immaturity)。

相對地，第二類運思方式比較複雜，包括兩個層面：內容層面 (content space) 和修辭層面 (rhetorical space)。內容層面泛指一些由假設推論而成的信念或看法，而修辭層面則將信念和看法依內裏的意義關係 (sense relation) 排列，令內容互相緊扣而成整篇結構。與前一種運思方式比較，這類方式衍生的文章，不但有內容，且有組織，是較成熟的表達。

## 試驗報告

上述討論，皆驗證於一次小規模的觀察，看看經過三個步驟的考審，能否分辨學生的作文中，哪些是用心寫的，哪些是敷衍了事的。試驗的對象是80名理工學院一年級（1992－93年度）學生，方法是要求他們各自選訂題目作文一篇，字數不限，在兩日內呈交。集齊80篇文字後，即依前文討論和步驟，嘗試分辨出具不同寫作態度的文字。步驟如下：先整體判斷學生作文的表現，區分優卷、中卷、劣卷；再依表達上的篇章類別（回溯性的文字、外延性的文字）區分學生作文；然後再從篇章結構和表達的成熟程度將每篇文章區分為成熟的表達或不成熟的表達。以下是分辨過程中的一些觀察。

## 一、整體表現

80篇文章的整體表現：

| | |
|---|---|
| 優卷 | 9篇（11%） |
| 中卷 | 36篇（45%） |
| 劣卷 | 35篇（44%） |

35篇作文（44%）屬劣卷。依上文理論基礎，文章的內容和結構是判斷整體表現的重點；即是說，佔半數的文字內容貧乏和結構鬆散。屬中卷的佔45%。Diederich（1974）認為中卷的特徵是：主旨未能儘量發揮，結構平板公式，不會嘗試其他更好的表達方式（第55－56頁）。換言之，大部分文字都言之無味。相對地，屬優卷的只有9卷（11%），程度較理想的學生只佔少數。

## 二、篇章類型

依上文理論基礎區分80篇文字的結果是：

| 回溯性的文字 (reflexive writing) | 外延性的文字 (extensive writing) |
|---|---|
| 53篇 | 27篇 |
| 66% | 34% |

回溯性的文字佔多，顯示學生多選自己個人經驗為寫作內容；相信因個人經驗容易表達。外延的文字佔少，即較少學生以客觀內容作題目。再將這結果與整體表現連結：

| | 回溯性的文字 | 外延性的文字 |
|---|---|---|
| 優卷 | 1 | 8 |
| 中卷 | 24 | 17 |
| 劣卷 | 28 | 7 |

有兩點值得注意：（1）在9篇優卷中，8篇（89%）屬外延性的文字，顯示這類文字在優卷中佔頗大比重。（2）在35篇劣卷中，28篇（佔80%）屬回溯性的文字，即差不多所有劣卷都是這類文字。Sternglass（1986）觀察大學生的第一語寫作與智力的關係，發現大專學生若越投入寫作，則在寫作中的識知謀略水平 (level of cognitive strategies) 就越高。簡要地說，學生若越能將寫作視為表達情意的方式，就越能運用所學知識，融會於行文運思之中。相反，對寫作不起勁，則傾向找一些身邊的話題；寫出來的文字亦較差。這看法正好說明上面表列的情況。

## 三、篇章結構與文字表達的成熟程度

依前文理論基礎三，將80篇文字區分，得下列結果：

| | 不成熟的表達 (immature writing) 38篇 | | | 成熟的表達 (mature writing) 42篇 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 優卷 | 中卷 | 劣卷 | 優卷 | 中卷 | 劣卷 |
| | 0 | 8 | 30 | 9 | 28 | 5 |
| 回溯性 | 0 | 8 | 27（90%） | 1 | 15 | 1 |
| 外延性 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 8（89%） | 13 | 4 |

屬不成熟的文字佔全部作文的48%，顯示半數學生未能澄清內容，表達的文字不大有傳訊能力。值得注意的是，在劣卷中，90%是回溯性的文字，且不成熟，表示這兩個範疇非常相關。同樣，在優劣中，89%是外延性的文字，表示外延與成熟的表達很相關。在不成熟的文字中，有30篇屬劣卷，表示大多數不成熟的文字（而其中大部分又是回溯性的文字）只就自己日常取材，寫一點東西，敷衍了事。

相對地，屬於成熟/外延、成熟/回溯和不成熟/外延的文字就應特別處理，尤其是屬於成熟/外延和不成熟/外延的一類。因為這些篇章是學生用心寫作，希望傳達情意的文字。在這些文字內出現的語文問題，才是他們的真正困難所在。

## 結語

本文的緣起，是因為不少學生在寫作練習時敷衍了事。由這種態度而出的文字，只應用來研究寫作態度與文字之間的關係，不能拿來分析學生在行文上的文字問題。即是說，在批改或分析學生作文之前，應先分辨哪些是學生用心寫的，哪些是敷衍的，才不致徒勞。前文提出分辨兩類文字的嘗試，經初步試驗，看來有點用處，可用作起點，一起討論，以求深入一點的解答。至於寫作態度與篇章結構的關係，本文只略涉一二，其間問題尚待探討。

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# The Teaching of Coherence in Writing

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This paper discusses the teaching of coherence in writing. First, definitions of coherence, as well as a dichotomy of coherence (the local versus global dichotomy) are given. This section is followed by a report of a study of problems of coherence in students' writing. The problems are defined, and illustrated by the analysis of examples taken from the compositions of the writer's Form Seven students. Finally, suggestions are made to help students to make improvements in the coherence of their writing.

### 如何教導寫作的連貫性

[illegible]

## 1. Introduction

With the emphasis on communicative competence in recent years, new demands have been placed on the teaching of both spoken and written English. But EFL teachers have a strong sense of inadequacy in teaching composition, partly because this has not been included in their training. Many teachers merely attend to surface-level features of writing, being "so distracted by language-related problems that they often correct these without realizing that there is a much larger, *meaning-related* problem that they have failed to address" (Zamel 1987:700). The "meaning-related problem" Zamel has in mind is coherence. In this paper, an attempt will be made to define coherence. This is followed by an analysis of the problems students have in this area. The final part will consist of some suggestions as to how coherence can be taught.

## 2. What is Coherence?

Although many scholars have tried to define coherence, it is still an elusive concept. Maybe this is because "coherence ... is more often a matter of *degree* than a clearcut matter of presence or absence" (Lindeberg 1985:72) (emphasis the writer's). However, it is still worthwhile attempting to explore what coherence is. According to de Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), "coherence ... concerns the way in which the components of the textual world, i.e. the configuration of concepts and relations which underlie the surface text, are mutually accessible and relevant." (p.4) (emphasis the writer's).

In an earlier book, de Beaugrande (1980) defines coherence as "conceptual connectivity". Coherence, therefore, refers to a smooth and logical flow of ideas in a discourse, and it is this flow which gives the discourse a sense of unity.

Having looked at the definitions of coherence in broad terms, let us now turn to a dichotomy of coherence, the local versus global dichotomy. This distinction is included in Albrechtsen, Evensen, Lindeberg and Linnarud (1991), who state that "local coherence applies to formal, semantic and pragmatic relations between neighbouring clauses or functional units, and global coherence relates to higher order units dominating such interclausal relationships" (p.91). Such a distinction will be made use of in the framework of the following discussion.

Let us now examine some of the problems the students have in coherence.

## 3. Problems in Students' Writing

Wikborg (1985) examined a total of 144 essays written by the undergraduates and graduates of Stockholm University and identified eleven types of coherence breaks. She defined five of these eleven types, which turned out to be the most frequent in the frequency count. In order to see if local students exhibit the same patterns of coherence breaks, a study was carried out by the writer. In the study, 31 essays written by the writer's Form 7 students were examined. It was found out that all the five types of coherence breaks defined by Wikborg could be identified in the writing of the Hong Kong sample, but other types of breaks could be detected as well. In order to present a clear picture of the findings, a framework was devised by the writer to categorize all the coherence breaks identified. In this framework, there are also eleven types of coherence breaks: the first five types are

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adapted from Wikborg's original categorization, while the rest are new categories added by the writer. All the breaks are now subsumed under two broad categories, "local coherence problems" and "global coherence problems".

In the following analysis, these types of coherence breaks will be defined, and illustrated by examples taken from the compositions of the writer's students. In quoting the examples, no correction of grammar will be made, to keep the original "flavour". The sentences in the examples will be numbered for easy reference. In all the examples except two, the writer's Form Seven students were writing on the title " 'Animals deserve to be treated with the same consideration and care as human beings.' Consider the arguments for or against this assertion." (1991 Hong Kong Advanced Level Use of English "Writing" Examination Question 3).

## 3.1 Types of Coherence Breaks Identified from the Hong Kong Sample

### *3.1.1 Local coherence problems*

### *(1) Uncertain inference ties*

Wikborg (1985) accounts for this by saying that inexperienced writers forget "the necessity of making their references explicit, of making the connections among their ideas apparent ... " (Perl, 1979:332, quoted in Wikborg 1985:96). Subsumed under this are two sub-categories, problematic reference words and insufficient specification:

*a) Problematic reference words*

These include words like "this", "it", "the" and "another", which have no clear identifiable referent in the text.

*An example taken from the composition of the writer's students*

> (1) For the pets at home, their masters should give more care to them. (2) It is their choice to take *them* home and so they have the responsibility to look after their pets with love.

*Comment*

> The pronouns and demonstrative adjectives in these two sentences are very confusing. This is due to the fact that the student has chosen two different words, "the pets" and "the masters", as the subjects of S1 and S2 respectively, but she has mixed up the pronouns and demonstrative adjectives. It would be much better if the sentences were rewritten like this:
>
> (1) People should give more care to their pets. (2) It is they who have chosen to take the pets home, so they have the responsibility to look after their pets with love.

*b) Insufficient specification*

Inferencing has been described as a process of solving a "bridging" or "discontinuity" problem (de Beaugrande and Dressler 1985:101). In impaired texts, because of insufficient specification, the "discontinuity" problem is serious, and so the reader will have to work hard to solve this problem, and may end up with several alternative interpretive hypotheses. Of course, there is a scale of interpretability, ranging from the most to the least easily interpretable type.

*Example*

> (1) Animals, just like all of us, are living things. (2) We both have to eat and drink to sustain our life. (3) However, as the superior one, we find that our intelligence make a great different between the animals and human beings. (4) However, there should have equal treatment to the animals by the human beings. (5) As mentioned above, although the human beings and animals have the same nature, their treatments are different.

*Comment*

> Although much can be said about the coherence problems of this paragraph, about the over-use of connectives ("however" in S3 and S4, "as mentioned above" in S5) and the problematic referent "one" in S3, we will restrict our discussion to the clause "human beings and animals have the same nature" in S5. It is true that the writer has said earlier that both human beings and animals are living things, but she goes on and says that the intelligence of human beings creates a huge difference between them and the animals, so, what does the writer exactly mean when she says that "the human beings and animals have the same nature"? Although it is not too difficult to "recover" the meaning (that "the same nature" refers to the fact that both human beings and animals are living things), "insufficient specification" does create a problem here.

### *(2) Missing or misleading sentence connection*

According to Wikborg, this category consists of the "non-use" or "misuse" of sentence connectors, which range from conjunctions (e.g. however, in addition...) and adverbs (e.g. first, in conclusion ...) to whole propositions (e.g. as was defined above ...), which function as macroreferences. In the following analysis, besides the "non-use" or "misuse" of connectors, a new sub-category is added, the "overuse" of connectors, which, as pointed out by many teacher-educators, is a serious problem in the writing of local students. Most of the following examples belong to Wikborg's category of "conjunctions", though an example of the misuse of macroreferences has also been identified.

*a) Non-use of connectors*

By this the writer means that a connector should have been used to bring out the intended meaning of the composition.

*Example*

> (1) Therefore, we have to take care of the animals very well and not to abuse them, these are the responsibilities of human beings. (2) It is impossible to look after them as human beings, otherwise, horse and dog racing will disappear in the world, as well as livestock farming.

*Comment*

It is necessary to add the connector "However" at the beginning of S2, or else the intended meaning cannot be brought out clearly.

*b) Misuse of connectors*

By this the writer means a wrong connector has been used, instead of the right one.

*Example*

(1) All creatures in the world has the right to live, even the weak always falling victim of the strong, it is law in natural. (2) That is why man has the leader role in the world because Man is the strongest and clever animals.

*Comments*

The misuse of the connective "even" in S1 constitutes the greatest coherence problem in this extract. "But" should be used instead, or else S1 and S2 would appear to be contradicting each other.

*c) Over-use of connectors*

According to many teacher-educators, the root of this problem may lie in the fact that connectives have been "over-taught". The writer thinks that this is true to a certain extent.

*Example 1*

(1) So far, the talk about human right have aroused much public concern. (2) Everyone is much concerning their rights in the society. (3) However, rarely have we concerned the rights of animals living with us. (4) Hence, I think that it is necessary to treat the animals with the same consideration and care as human beings to a certain extent.

*Comment*

The connective "hence" at the beginning of S4 is not needed.

*Example 2*

(1) Another example to illustrate that animals should be treated with the same consideration and care will be described in the following scenario. (2) In the past, many farmers plough the farmland with the assistance of strong buffaloes. ... (3) - (7) other examples (8) Owing to the contributions and achievements of the animals, we should and have to respect and appreciate them.

*Comment*

It is hard to persuade some students that "simple English is good English", and these students tend to use elaborate but unnatural and even erroneous expressions to "impress", but not to "communicate". In the example quoted above, apart from the fact that it is wrong to introduce this paragraph by using the phrase "another example", because more than one example has been given in S2 to S7, the expression "in the following scenario" is erroneous, as what follows is not a scenario, but examples.

### 3.1.2 Global coherence problems

#### (1) Misleading paragraph division

According to Wikborg, this problem is a "topic-structuring problem" (p.100) (by "topic" she means the "discourse topic"). Although Wikborg agrees that there are many acceptable paragraphing alternatives, she asserts that "paragraph divisions function as central topic-shift markers, so that if they are removed, the coherence of the passage is seriously impaired" (p.101). There are two sub-categories of misleading paragraph divisions. Examples for illustration purposes are taken from the composition of the writer's Form Five students. This is because no examples can be identified in the Form Seven compositions. However, we should not jump to the conclusion that the Form Seven students do not have this problem, but it seems that their juniors have a greater problem with this aspect.

The two sub-categories of misleading paragraph divisions are:

*a) There is a change of topic or topic aspect within the orthographic paragraph*

*Example from a Form Five composition*

(1) After this accident, I felt very sad. (2) It was because I saw that the passengers were injured. (3) I think the driver was to blame for the accident. (4) I hereby testify that the above is what I saw. (5) I am willing to assist in further investigation.

*Comment*

The writer is asked to write an eye-witness report on an accident. This extract is the last paragraph of her report. However, she should have started a new paragraph when she wrote S4 and S5, as she is making a declaration, which is a change of topic.

*b) There is a change of orthographic paragraph without a corresponding change of subject or subject aspect*

*Example from a Form Five Composition*

*Paragraph One*

(1) He decided to shoplift. (2) He went to the supermarket and took some food.

*Paragraph Two*

(3) Then he put the food into his bag. (4) However, he was discovered by the shopkeeper.

*Comment*

Since S3 naturally follows S2, all these 4 sentences should be put in the same paragraph.

#### (2) Unjustified topic changes

Wikborg states that "(t)opic changes sometimes strike the reader as being abrupt. Often, however, they take the form of a gradual shift from what has been the main subject to a closely related, but secondary one, which ends up by displacing the original subject" (p.122).

*Example*

(1) Deforestation and pollution have encroached into the life of the wild animals gradually. (2) It is high time for all of us to consider these problems. (3) We have no right to deprive their homes of wild animals. (4) In order to preserve their living environment, a law should be made to punish people who kill the wild animals. (5) It is too cruel to kill

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them for their skin and meat to satisfy our selfish wants.

*Comment*

The development of the topic, the preservation of the *habitat* of wildlife, in the first three sentences can be said to be "so far so good." However, there is an obvious shift of topic in the second part of S4 and also S5. The new topic is the protection of (the *life* of) wildlife.

### (3) Unspecified Topic

Wikborg maintains that "[n]o matter how well formed a sentence, a paragraph or even a whole section may be, if we cannot grasp its role in the surrounding text, it presents us with a case of unspecified topic" (p.120).

*Example*

(1) Nowadays, wildlife are threatened by the hunters. (2) The home of wild animals are destroyed. (3) It is because we need more space for industrial and commercial development. (4) Also, worldwide temperature becomes higher. (5) Since the ozone has a hole. (6) For example, temperature in North Pole became higher and a lot of ice melted. (7) The wild animals will die as they cannot adapt the changes. (8) Because of the above problems, the numbers of wild animals have begun to reduce. (9) So, animals should be treated with the same consideration and care as human beings.

*Comment*

Having read this extract, we may immediately ask two questions: first, what is the "role" of S3-S7 in the surrounding text? Second, even if we treat the animals with the same consideration and care as human beings, as suggested in S8, can this remedy the gloomy situation as spelt out in S3-S7? The answers to these two questions are obvious, and so is the fact that the topic in this extract is "unspecified."

### (4) Problematic introduction

This includes inserting an inappropriate introduction in an essay, or not including an introduction at all, as can be seen in the following example:

*Example*

(1) Indeed, I can hardly convince myself to agree with such assertion. (2) How come animals deserve to be treated with the same consideration and care as human beings?

*Comment*

It is true that the writer states her stance very clearly in S2. However, S1, as the introductory sentence of the whole essay, sounds too abrupt. It gives the readers an impression that the writer is answering a question, and not writing an essay in an attempt to communicate with the reader.

### (5) Problematic conclusion

This includes not making any conclusion to an essay, or making an appropriate conclusion, in the sense that there is a mismatch between the conclusion and the precedent assertion(s). (Here, "conclusions" do not necessarily refer to the ending of essays. They include assertions made at the end of an argument.)

*Example 1*

(1) In my opinion, both groups of people are not totally right. (2) If we overkill the animals, it will disturb the ecosystem.

*Comment*

At a first glance, "both groups of people" seem to be problematic, as there are no definite referents. However, this is perfectly justified, in view of the fact that it appears in the conclusion: the reader should have followed the arguments in the essay and understood which "groups of people" the writer is talking about. What is problematic is what follows: in S2, the writer recapitulates what is "not right" about the behavior of one of the groups, but he has not done the same thing about the other group she has mentioned in the essay. This makes the conclusion incomplete.

*Example 2*

(1) Recent several years, there is a tendency of decreasing in number of particular animals. (2) These animals like panda and crocodiles have been given protection by the government to prevent people catch and kill them to make bags and clothes. (3) Therefore, from a standpoint of human, animals deserve to be treated with the same consideration and care as human beings.

*Comment*

After reading this, the reader would feel that there is somehow a missing link between S2 and S3.

### (6) Repeating oneself

*Example*

(1) To treat animals as the human beings is not just to protect them from being killed, but also needs to care about their health, their living environment and their needs and so on. (2) So, to treat animals as the human beings is not just a simple action not to kill them, but also needs to care about their feelings and basic needs.

*Comment*

Not only is the content of these two consecutive sentences similar, but also the structure.

### (7) Contradicting oneself

*Example*

(1) The staff in the zoo provide the animals a regular diet, clean environment for living and regular exercises, so the animals are healthy and happy. (2) Nevertheless, why do the animals look so tired and anxious?

*Comment*

The assertion is S1 that the animals are "healthy and happy," and the comment in S2 that they look "tired and anxious," obviously contradict each other.

### (8) Circular arguments

*Example*

(1) Besides, why human beings are superior is because we have consciousness. (2) We will not kill, we will not fight with, we will not abuse other animals. (3) Instead, we treat them as friends, give them suitable and sophisticated care, love them. (4) This is why human beings are superior.

*Comment*

At first, the student asserts in S1 that the reason why human beings are superior is that we have "consciousness" (no matter what the student actually means by using this word). Then she goes on to say that the evidence or result of our possessing this consciousness is that we treat the animals well. However, she ends up by saying that our good treatment of animals is the reason why we are superior. So this is a circular argument.

### (9) *Making sweeping statements*

*Example*

In fact, not just Hong Kong people have neglected the animals' right, all the people living in the world are also.

*Comment*

It is indeed unfair to accuse "all the people living in the world" of having neglected animals' rights — at least the student himself has not!

## 3.2 Reasons for Coherence Breaks

Before suggesting ways of helping students, let us explore the reasons accounting for the coherence breaks analyzed above.

### *3.2.1 Poor in proficiency*

In Bamberg's (1984) list of seven aspects of coherence, the last one is "avoiding grammatical and mechanical errors". This is confirmed in Bunton (1991), who first chose to leave this aspect out in giving instructions to his coherence raters, as to him proficiency "did not seem ... to be central to the concept of coherence" (p.96), only to find out from his raters that proficiency is an important contributing factor to coherence ("One NS rater suggested that coherence ratings might be different if the compositions were 'cleaned up' by removing gross distracting errors ..." (Bunton 1991:96). To this writer, proficiency is a necessary condition for coherence: not all essays written with a high proficiency are coherent, but in order to put across one's message coherently, the writer should be able to write accurately enough. Let us look at the following examples:

*Example 1*

(1) It is very cruel that we use animals, such as rats and rabbits, in experiments to test out new products. (2) If people try their best to reform their products, such as using more neutral materials, so the using of the animals in experiments can be reduced.

*Example 2*

(1) Human beings should not disturb the wildlife. (2) The wildlife live in the forest and the human beings live in the city. (3) We cannot affect each other's life.

*Comment*

The misuse (or mis-spelling) of "neutral materials" in S2, Example 1, and "cannot affect" in S3, Example 2, block the communication between the writer and reader. If the correct expressions, "natural materials" and "should not affect", are replaced respectively, there will be no problem at all in processing both extracts.

### *3.2.2 Weak in logical thinking*

To this writer, one of the most important causes for poor logical thinking and weak organization is the "spoon-feeding" system in Hong Kong — conventional as this viewpoint appears to be. Students are not taught, or even encouraged, to organize materials (be they notes or essay answers), not to mention thinking creatively on their own. In practically every subject, they are given model answers to recite. So the burden of teaching students to organize and to think is now placed on language teachers, in their teaching of composition and other skills, such as precis writing. The English teachers thus have a particular problem because it is difficult to teach students to organize their thoughts when they have to struggle with grammar and expressions in the meantime.

### *3.2.3 The writing being the "raw" form of the writer's thoughts*

A writer's thoughts should be organized before it is expressed in words, otherwise it will be incomprehensible, or will at least increase the processing time, and thus the burden, on the reader's part. One of the reasons why the student cannot further "refine" his/her thoughts is that he/she is writing in too great a hurry, such as in an exam situation. Another reason is that the local students at all levels are "notorious" for not proofreading nor revising their own work before submitting it. Their excuse is that they have no time to do so, but the truth is that they do not realize the importance of proofreading and revision. A third reason is that some students are just not competent enough to express himself/herself in a coherent way, as mentioned above.

*Example*

(1) Some animals are very fierce and will threaten our life like lions. (2) In this case, we should carefully to treat them. (3) These animals are no longer our friends instead they are our enemies.

*Comment*

To improve the coherence of this extract, the writer should either exchange the position of S2 and S3, or add the phrase "This is because" at the beginning of S3.

# 4. How to Help Students to Improve Coherence in Writing?

Having looked at students' problems, it is time to look at possible solutions. Most of the following suggestions are remedies to the specific problems and underlying reasons spelt out above. As the Chinese saying goes, medicine should be prescribed according to the nature of a disease.

## 4.1 Improving Proficiency

It is a recognized fact that it is difficult to find remedies, especially quick remedies, for this problem. What we teachers can do is to encourage, or to assign, our students to read more, coherent essays in particular, so that their proficiency can be improved gradually and that they can at least distinguish a piece of coherent writing from an incoherent one. The latter will help a lot when they read their own or their peer's writing, as suggested in 4.3.

## 4.2 Improving Logical Thinking

This is another difficult area for our students, taking into consideration all the constraints they face in the local education system. Of course, it would be most ideal if all the subject teachers join together in a co-operative effort to teach and encourage students to think logically and to organize their writing. However, since other subject teachers have their own constraints, such as a long syllabus to cover and the "negative" backwash effects of local public examinations (which still place heavy emphasis on rote learning), EFL teachers have to take the initiative of helping our students. We can expose them to debates and forums first, and then involve them in similar activities at a later stage, so that they can have a go and discover for themselves the art and the science of logical thinking.

## 4.3 Teaching Writing

In discussing the third reason accounting for students' problems, in Section 3.2.3, it is speculated that students write in too great a hurry, in view of an imposed time constraint (such as in an exam situation), or simply because they just do not have the habit of proofreading and revision. EFL teachers should indeed help the students to correct their practice as well as attitude, but before we are able to do so, we should perhaps correct our own practice as well as attitude first: we should "teach" writing, instead of "testing" writing all the time.

### *4.3.1 Teaching information structure*

It is surprising that many teachers and students still share a common view of composition organization, which is "Introduction — Body — Conclusion", without realizing that these terms are too general as to offer enough guidelines to student writers. There are some useful information structures we can teach our students, such as the "cause-effect" structure and the Fundamental Information Structure (FIS) (Winter, 1976). Since the former structure is familiar to EFL teachers, only the latter will be introduced here.

FIS is an information structure made up of a combination of four basic components: "Situation", "Problem", "Solution" and "Result/Evaluation". According to Jordan (1984), "(t)he role of 'Situation' is to provide enough background information for the intended reader to understand the problem being presented and to be able to place the information in the text in perspective with their other knowledge of related matters." (p.49-50) The term "Problem" is not used in the limited sense of a chess problem or a mathematical problem, but in a much wider sense as meaning any form of discomfort or dissatisfaction with a situation. "(S)olutions are things or actions that AVOID, COUNTERACT, REDUCE, PREVENT or OVERCOME the problem." (Jordan 1984:5) (block letters Jordan's) As for "Result/Evaluation", the former is an objective part in which the outcome of the "solution" is reported, while the latter is a subjective part on which the outcome is commented. It is not necessary to use all the components of FIS all the time, or to arrange the components in the order spelt out above. In a recent study (Wong, 1993), the results suggest that the writer's Form 4 students have benefitted from instruction of FIS. So there may be a place for teaching FIS in Hong Kong secondary schools.

### *4.3.2 Teaching writing as a process*

We should teach writing as a process, rather than as a product. We should allow students more time to generate ideas and to write up the essay. We should insist on proofreading on the one hand, and encourage multiple drafts and peer revision on the other. Of course, in doing all the above — proofreading, multiple drafts and peer revision — the focus can be on grammatical accuracy or coherence, or both. However, for inexperienced writers like our students, it would be very difficult for them to focus on both aspects at the same time. So it would be wise to ask them to focus on accuracy in their first reading, and coherence in their second reading.

Specific guidelines can be given to our students in focusing on coherence. For example, we can ask them to examine the inference ties, the sentence connectors, the paragraph changes, the introduction, the conclusion and the topic development, that is, the different potential areas for coherence breaks, as analyzed in Section 3. If this task proves to be too onerous for some students, and it surely will for students who are poor in proficiency and coherence, just ask them to concentrate on some aspects for each composition, and gradually their awareness towards coherence breaks will be increased.

Another useful aid for students is to teach them to analyze the coherence patterns of their writing, as done by Lindeberg (1985) in her study.

To Lindeberg, coherence patterns distinguish good expository essays from poor ones. She adopts a unit established by Lieber (1980), which is called the functional unit (F-unit), defined as "the set of clauses and clause equivalents serving an identifiable rhetorical function in written discourse"

The rhetorical function is termed "F-role". In Lindeberg's (1985) study, the "F-roles" examined include "Assert", "Specify", "Contrast", "Cause" and "Result". According to Lieber (Ibid), the purpose of "Assert" is to "to introduce a new topic ... which is not covered by a previously stated generalization". The purpose of "Specify" is to "enumerate the specific facts or details implied or summarized in a previous ... statement". As for "Cause" and "Result", the former identifies "the cause, reason, or purpose of an event or assertion presented in another F-unit", while the latter "indicate(s) an effect, outcome, result, or consequence" (Lieber, 1980: Appendix C). In her study, Lindeberg (1985) looked at the patterns formed by the sequences of F-roles so as to find out the coherence patterns of a text. Her findings are presented below in Table 1 (P.86):

Table 1: Coherence patterns in good essays v.s. poor essays

| F-roles following Assert (pairwise): | Good | Poor |
|---|---|---|
| ASSERT-ASSERT | 6 | 35 |
| ASSERT-SPECIFY | 29 | 21 |
| ASSERT-CONTRAST | 22 | 14 |
| ASSERT-CAUSE | 15 | 11 |
| ASSERT-RESULT | 6 | 6 |
| F-roles following Assert (triplets): | | |
| ASSERT-ASSERT-ASSERT | 0 | 11 |
| ASSERT-ASSERT-SPECIFY | 0 | 9 |
| ASSERT-SPECIFY-ASSERT | 4 | 6 |
| ASSERT-SPECIFY-SPECIFY | 10 | 14 |
| ASSERT-CONTRAST-SPECIFY | 8 | 2 |
| ASSERT-CONTRAST-CONTRAST | 6 | 2 |
| ASSERT-SPECIFY-CAUSE | 6 | 2 |
| ASSERT-CAUSE-SPECIFY | 6 | 2 |

Note: The percentages were calculated of the total number of F-role pairs or triplets whose first member was "Assert". As the number of possible pairs or triplets was great, only the most frequent patterns have been included here.

Some salient points in Lindeberg's findings include: A prevalence of "Asserts" indicates a very disjointed essay. (This writer thinks that this phenomenon has something to do with the given-new dichotomy. When the topics of many consecutive sentences are "new", not "given", the reader finds it difficult to process the information. This echoes one type of coherence break mentioned in Section 3, "unspecified topic".) The pattern "Assert-Specify" indicates the development of a topic. It is in the triplets (Table 1 refers) that significant figures come out. The higher figure for the poor essays in the pattern "Assert-Specify-Specify" (14% in poor essays, as compared with 10% in good essays) shows that many poor writers specify the same point twice or more rather than move down in depth. (This is similar to an earlier assertion in Section 3 that poor writers tend to repeat themselves.)

Lindeberg (Ibid) suggests that this method of analysis is especially useful in dealing with not quite coherent essays, but also practical for describing merits in good essays. The writer thinks that this method is indeed worth trying out.

### 4.4 Taking a Collaborative Stance

The last but not the least, it is essential for us to take a "collaborative stance" (Zamel Ibid:710), to walk in the shoes of our students, by doing the writing tasks and thus going through the thinking and writing process side by side with our students. Then we can understand their problems more thoroughly on one hand, and evaluate our teaching and the ap; propriateness of the writing task on the other.

## 5. Conclusion

As Johns (1986) remarks, "(d)efining and teaching coherence are difficult tasks" (p.264). In ending this discussion the writer would like to make it clear that the above is not meant to be a panacea for all sorts of coherence problems (and the writer believes there could never be one). The writer just hopes that in analyzing what coherence is, what problems are involved and what remedial measures can be taken, we can understand the subject, which is such a fascinating one, more and try our best to help our students, and ourselves, to write more coherently.

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# Backwash and The Use of English Oral — Speculations on The Impact of A New Examination Upon Sixth Form English Language Teaching in Hong Kong

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The Hong Kong Examinations Authority (HKEA) is adding an Oral component to the Use of English (UE) exam from 1994. It is hoped that this change will have a positive backwash effect on the teaching and learning of English in the Sixth Form[1], by encouraging even the most exam-oriented teachers and students to give due emphasis to practice of the Speaking skill. In this paper we describe the background to the development of the new Oral, we discuss the general notion of backwash and we speculate on how the backwash from the new Oral might affect the future direction of Sixth Form English Language Teaching. As input to our speculations, we draw upon information from a questionnaire completed by more than 500 Sixth Form students from the final "pre-Oral" cohort, in which they reveal some of their perceptions about English and their English lessons.

## 洄瀾效應與英語運用口語課程　香港中六英語教學新考試方式可能產生的影響

香港考試局於1994年在英語運用科的考試中增加了口試部分，希望藉此能對中六的英語教學帶來正面的洄瀾效應，並鼓勵最以考試為中心的教師和學生都重視口語能力的培養。本文探討英語運用科口試部分的發展背景，討論所謂的「洄瀾」觀念，並對該新口試部分如何對中六英語教學產生洄瀾式影響作出估計。本文的討論資料主要來自對500多名「口試前」中六中七學生的問卷調查，以瞭解他們對英語及英語課的看法。

## The UE Oral

The Use of English Examination will be taken in 1994 by some 26,000 candidates, mostly Secondary 7 (13th year) students. The results of the UE, an Advanced Supplementary (AS) Level examination, are used by tertiary institutions as admissions criteria as well as by many employers as the measure of English language competence of job applicants. The UE battery, as administered since 1989, has comprised four sections: Section A, Writing; Section B, Listening; Section C, Reading and Language Systems and Section D, Practical Skills for Work and Study (WASPS).

Speaking skills constitute a significant area of language competence which has *not* hitherto been assessed in the UE, a deliberate omission by the designers of the 1989 UE because of the technical and administrative problems associated with oral examinations as well as because of the designers' belief that students and teachers would have quite enough to cope with adjusting to the new approaches to testing which *were* included in the 1989 examination. However, the effects of this omission were widely felt by users of the UE examination — that is, tertiary institutions and employers — and therefore a fifth section, an oral examination, has been added to the syllabus for implementation in the 1994 administration of the UE. This oral section, now designated Section D, will constitute 18% of the total UE subject mark.

For the Oral, groups of four candidates will be assessed by two examiners. The exam will consist of two parts. In Part One each of the four candidates in turn will present an oral account of a short reading passage she has been given to read, while in Part Two the four candidates will participate in a group discussion to plan a project or perform a task. Assessment will be on an impression-mark, norm-referenced basis with equal weighting given to each of the two parts. In Part One, the assessment will concentrate on intelligibility, and accuracy of pronunciation and grammar. In Part Two, the assessment will focus upon effective communicative interaction, with specific attention being paid to range of vocabulary and structures, intelligibility, fluency and turn-taking. It is hoped that the new Section D will round out the UE assessment and provide valuable additional information for the users of the examination. Of equal importance to the HKEA and the developers of the new Oral is the potential backwash effect on English language education in Hong Kong and ultimately on the standard of speaking skills of Sixth Form leavers.

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[1] "Sixth Form" describes the two year period of study after the O-level Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination (HKCEE). Thus the term "Sixth Form" covers both Secondary 6 and Secondary 7 (sometimes referred to as Form 6 and Form 7).

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## Backwash

The term backwash (or washback) is defined simply (and neutrally) by Hughes (1989:1) as "... the effect of testing upon teaching and learning". It is a concept which has been discussed extensively in the educational and the applied linguistics literature. For many writers it appears to be an accepted truth that there is such an effect. For example, Heyneman (1987) asserts:

> "It is true that teachers teach to an examination" (Heyneman 1987:200), while Swain comments that:

> "It has frequently been noted that teachers will teach to a test: that is, if they know the content of a test and/or the format of a test, they will teach their students accordingly" (Swain 1985:43). At the same time, however, backwash seems to be a somewhat vague and imprecise notion. There also appears to be relatively little empirical evidence for its existence.

Backwash is imprecise in that, as Alderson and Wall (1992) point out, it can refer to a number of specific effects. For instance, testing might affect *what* teachers teach (i.e. the content of a lesson) and also *how* they teach (i.e. the methodology). It might affect *what* learners learn (i.e. what they pay attention to and retain) and also *how* they learn (i.e. their selection of learning strategies). It might also affect *how well* they learn (i.e. the effect upon their proficiency). Alderson and Wall in fact offer 15 different backwash hypotheses, to illustrate the complexity of the concept and the imprecise way in which it tends to have been discussed in the literature (Alderson and Wall 1992:8-9).

Much of the discussion in the literature also seems to be based on assertion rather than on empirical evidence. Johnson, for instance, claims that:

> "In many education systems the key question for students, teachers, parents, school administrators, and even inspectors is not, 'Are students gaining in communicative competence?' but, 'Are they on course for the examination?'" (Johnson 1989:6)

This is a comment which rings true for anyone familiar with an education system like that in Hong Kong, but one which is not supported by hard evidence. Even in backwash-related studies which are research-based, there is little or no direct evidence of the effect of testing on what takes place in classrooms. For example, Morris's 1985 study of teachers' perceptions of the barriers to the implementation of an innovation in Economics teaching in Hong Kong schools gives a clear indication of the pressures teachers face because of the importance placed upon examination success. It does not, however, focus upon or offer any evidence relating to the actual effects of examinations upon classroom teaching (Morris 1985).

A study such as Hughes (1988) appears to provide quite clear evidence for the existence of a backwash effect, in this case resulting from the introduction of an English proficiency test for undergraduates at the Foreign Language School, Bogazici University, Istanbul. The test was designed to reflect the uses of English in an English-medium university like Bogazici and its introduction was intended to bring about changes in the curriculum. The study reports a dramatic improvement in the language proficiency of undergraduates following the introduction of the test. However, as Alderson and Wall (1992) point out, the study does not show precisely what backwash effect the new test produced nor how that effect was produced. Indeed, the improved proficiency noted by Hughes may have been merely the result of an increase in students' (and teachers') work-rate following the introduction of a test with serious consequences attached to failure ; the nature of the actual work done by students and teachers may well not have changed in the intended direction (Alderson and Wall 1992:14-16).

Some interpretations of backwash focus upon the negative effects of tests, particularly public examinations. Oxenham sums up this viewpoint as follows:

> "The harm of centralised examinations is said to spring from the restrictions they will impose upon curricula, teachers and students. Teachers are unwilling to teach, students resist learning matter outside the purview of the examiners. For their part, these last are constrained by the techniques available to them and can manage to examine only a tiny part of the field of education.
>
> Their almost inescapable bias is to encourage the most mechanical, boring and debilitating forms of teaching and learning." (Oxenham 1984:113)

In the past decade, however, it has been increasingly common to examine the potential for backwash to exert a positive influence on pedagogy, to the extent that Jansen describes as "... an educational truism ..." (Jansen 1989:223) the sort of view expressed by Brooke and Oxenham that:

> "...a prime line of reform should bend examinations to fit the wider objectives of education. By that kind of judo trick, examinations ... should promote and reward better teaching and learning." (Brooke and Oxenham 1984:175)

Examination reform in Kenya has been undertaken with this sort of objective in mind (Somerset 1983). In the teaching of English and of other languages, similar attempts have been made to harness this assumed potential. Swain, for instance, has discussed the principle of "working for washback" in the development of a test of French (Swain 1985), while in Sri Lanka examination reform has deliberately been used as a "lever for change" (Pearson 1988). In Hong Kong, the development of the UE Oral (described above, and discussed in more detail in Andrews and Fullilove, in press) was firmly based upon this principle: the proposed changes to the 1996 HKCEE English examination (involving not only modifications to the existing oral component but also the introduction of an Integrated Skills paper) are being introduced with a similar goal in mind.

As suggested earlier, any attempt to make positive use of backwash is based upon speculation rather than clear evidence. Hughes' 1988 study (see above) seems to confirm that backwash exists, but without contributing significantly to our understanding of how to harness backwash most effectively. Even where a systematic effort has been made to investigate the impact of an examination specifically intended to act as a "lever for change", as in the Sri Lanka Impact Study (Wall and Alderson 1992), there is as yet no evidence of backwash upon methodology, while the backwash on the content of teaching (for which there is some evidence) appears to be partly positive and partly negative (Wall and Alderson 1992:27).

One area of speculation regards the strength of the backwash effect and what determines it. This area will be the focus of the rest of the paper, which will discuss this question in relation to the UE Oral. In answering this question, we will consider three factors, each of which, it is suggested, is potentially important in affecting the strength or intensity of the backwash effect. The first of these is the importance attached to the overall examination or the components of the examination: whether, for example, a successful result will make an important contribution to tertiary education or employment prospects and the relative value placed on particular skills or areas of knowledge.

The second factor is how teachers view the examination: whether the nature of the examination fits with the teacher's conception of how best to teach or with the approach to language teaching she generally adopts, and whether the teacher believes that it is possible to train students for the examination given the practical constraints on teaching. The wide range of teacher attitudes may well account for much of the variation in the strength of backwash.

The third factor which may affect the success or intensity of the backwash effect is the degree to which students perceive the examination goals to be complimentary to or convergent with larger, non-examination goals which they see as desirable, particularly in further education or employment. If students believe that the mix of skills demanded by an examination coincide with skills which will be useful to them later, it is suggested that they will be more likely to work harder to attain those skills than they would if the examination requirements did not appear helpful in achieving larger, non-examination goals.

## Backwash and the UE Oral

In speculating about the backwash from the UE Oral and its effects on the future direction of Sixth Form English Language Teaching in Hong Kong, let us consider each of these factors in more detail.

### *The mathematical weighting factor*

The first of these factors raises a number of interesting questions. For instance, is the backwash from any exam component likely to change in direct proportion to a change in the mathematical weighting of that component? Common sense suggests that this is unlikely at the level of fine tuning associated with minor adjustments of weighting. It does seem, however, that there is a percentage point at which the weighting of any component becomes difficult for teachers and students to ignore. If this is indeed the case, at what point does the weighting start to exert a significant influence on teachers' and students' attitudes? It seems reasonable to assume that a weighting of below 10% for any component is likely to cause that component to have negligible backwash. One might make a similar assumption in instances where the weighting for a component, though higher than 10%, is substantially lower than the weighting for any other component. Conversely, if the weighting for any component is significantly higher than for the others (as will remain the case with WASPS even after the readjustment from 35% to 28% for the 1994 UE), then that component cannot be ignored.

These general considerations together with issues specifically related to oral tests led to prolonged discussion among the members of the UE Oral Working Party of the appropriate weighting for this new component. The eventual decision — that the Oral should be assigned the same weighting as all the other UE components bar WASPS — was something of a compromise, which was conceded in response to the strongly held belief of some of the Working Party members that this would be the absolute minimum required if a clear signal was to be sent to teachers and students that the Oral was a significant part of the UE exam and that it was therefore appropriate for Speaking to be a correspondingly important focus for teaching in the Sixth Form. It remains to be seen whether the signal is clear enough and therefore teachers and students respond as has been hoped and anticipated. It could, of course, be argued that a stronger signal would have been sent if the weighting had been higher. It could be just as persuasively argued, however, that any markedly higher weighting would have upset the balance of the overall exam and therefore raised a different set of issues.

### *The teacher factor*

The second factor — the teacher factor — reveals upon closer examination several layers of complexity. For instance, there are practical constraints on the extent to which it is possible for teachers to respond in the way desired by those intending for the test to act as a "lever for change". This general point is particularly relevant in the case of the UE Oral, which is being introduced at a moment when, in many schools, English is having to struggle to maintain its present number of periods per week/cycle in the Sixth Form because of the pressures on timetable space resulting from the introduction of a range of AS-level subjects into the curriculum.

There is as yet no comprehensive picture of what is happening in schools as a result of the UE Oral — indeed, it is probably too soon for schools to have settled upon their response to the conflicting timetable pressures. Information gathered informally in November 1992 from a small sample of Secondary 6 English teachers suggested a varied pattern of response at that point and underlined the limitations on teachers' flexibility. A group of 26 teachers was asked how (if at all) their school syllabus/scheme of work for English at Secondary 6 had changed for the current academic year. Only three teachers out of 26 reported that more time was being devoted to English. In one case this had been achieved by an actual increase in the number of lessons allocated to English. The other two teachers, however, were being obliged to give one extra lesson per week outside regular school hours in order to fit Speaking into their Secondary 6 teaching. Several other teachers reported, by contrast, that in spite of the introduction of the UE Oral, the number of English lessons per week/cycle at Secondary 6 had actually been cut in order to accommodate other AS subjects. In terms of the content of their teaching programme, no significant changes had been noted as yet, although the majority of the group reported that UE Oral-related course-books were being actively considered for purchase by their schools.

A further layer of complexity concerns the attitudes of teachers. Even assuming that the teaching programme is altered so that it is possible for Speaking to become a focus for some Sixth Form English lessons, there is no guarantee that teachers will seize this opportunity with any great enthusiasm. They may, for instance, be less than convinced about the desirability or feasibility of testing Speaking at all and therefore approach the prospect of preparing students for the Oral•somewhat halfheartedly. Alternatively, they may be rather more positive about the Oral in principle, but nevertheless feel that preparation for it will largely have to take care of itself, since students will continue to need all the help they can get with the rest of the exam.

Then there may be further ambiguities in the way in which the Oral finally impacts upon the classroom. There may, for example, be a significant mismatch between the exam format and the sort of classroom activities with which a teacher feels comfortable in her own class. The Oral implicitly assumes that there has been widespread acceptance and adoption of a communicative approach to language teaching in Hong Kong classrooms. It might be argued, however, that for a substantial number of Hong Kong's English teachers the communicative revolution never happened: there may have been a palace revolution, leading to new syllabus documents and new generations of glossy-covered text-books, but the attitudes and practices of many classroom teachers have never fundamentally changed. As a result, there is still a discernible reluctance to give students regular opportunities to work independently in pairs and small groups on Speaking tasks, even though such activities would fit in with the UE Oral format and in fact be considered highly orthodox in communicative methodology. This reluctance to loosen control might be attributable to a variety of factors — resistance to change, fear of the unknown (the activity itself, the role of the teacher, the reaction of the students), perception of student expectations — all of which need to be understood within the context of a system which works teachers very hard, in ways which would sap the willingness of even the most creative and committed teacher to set students tasks which are unfamiliar in nature and which therefore might require increased preparation/planning time.

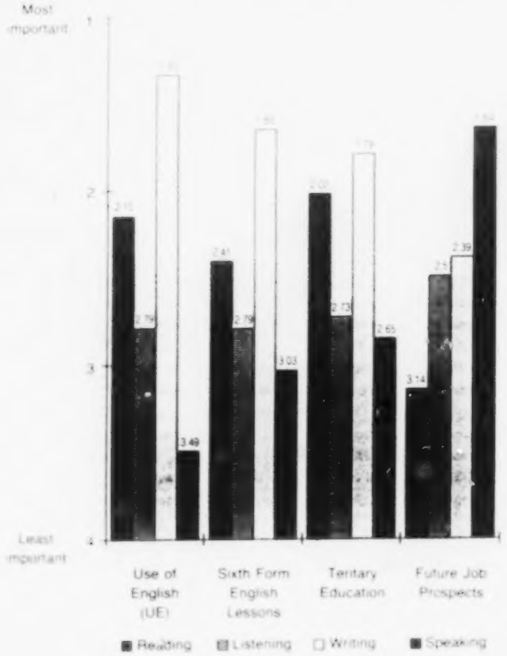
Such reluctance, however understandable, could well have the unfortunate consequence of causing the backwash effect of the UE Oral to be more apparent than actual. It could be, for example, that a great deal of time is spent by teachers introducing and explaining expressions which are deemed useful for making oral presentations and taking part in group discussions, while actual opportunities for student oral production are restricted almost entirely either to responses to teacher questions or to individual or single group performances in front of the rest of the class. In such a situation, one might in some sense be able to talk about backwash in quantitative terms, with, for example, one lesson per week/cycle notionally devoted to Speaking where previously there had been none, and even in qualitative terms, since the style and content of teaching might be somewhat different from what had gone before. But such quantitative and qualitative effects would be a far cry from what was envisaged by the developers of the UE Oral.

## *The student factor*

The third factor — the student factor — has its own layers of complexity, too, not the least important of which is the fact that the backwash effect as experienced by students in classrooms has to be mediated through teachers and is therefore susceptible to all the influences mentioned in the previous section. Equally important, however, are the perceptions and attitudes which the students themselves bring to the classroom, since these will have a powerful effect on the value they place upon certain activities and on the willingness with which they participate.

So, what perceptions of English and English lessons do Hong Kong's Sixth Form students have? In order to gain a more systematic impression of their perceptions (and as a preliminary stage in monitoring potential changes resulting from the introduction of the UE Oral), a questionnaire was administered in May 1992 to 540 Secondary 6 students from all over the territory. The respondents were all from the final cohort working towards the version of the UE which did not include an Oral. They had all applied for admission to Hong Kong University's B.Ed. (Language Education) programme, either as Chinese Majors or English Majors. 96% of respondents were from English-medium schools. 89% were attending aided schools, 8% government schools and 3% private schools. 79% were in mixed schools, 17% in girls' schools and 4% in boys' schools.

The first question asked respondents to rate the importance of the importance of the four English Language skills for a number of different situations: their Sixth Form school work, the UE examination, teritary education, and future job prospects. The diagram which follows shows the mean ratings.



It might be misleading to attach too precise a significance to specific figures, particularly those which seem to show relatively minor differences of perception. However, a number of interesting points seem to emerge. First is the very clear perception these Secondary 6 students have of the relative importance of the four skills for the UE exam. Writing is seen as the most important by a long way. This can no doubt be accounted for because it is the focus for one out of the four present UE exam components and also because it is the skill through which performance on the integrated-skill WASPS paper (with a weighting of 35%) is measured: in other words, Writing is specifically required for nearly 60% of the exam. Second, there is the perception of Sixth Form school work in English, which reflects a broadly similar pattern, suggesting that students and teachers seem to be in accord about their prioritisation of the four skills in relation to the short-term objective of passing the UE exam and that this is mirrored in classroom practice. Third, and perhaps most interesting, is these students' perception of the relative importance of the four skills in the longer term, particularly for their future job prospects: in clear contrast with both the UE exam and with Sixth Form school work, it is Speaking rather than Writing which is felt to be the most important by a very clear majority of respondents.

When examining these responses, one might feel tempted to question the accuracy of some of the students' perceptions: on what, for example, do they base their views of tertiary education? and to what extent is it realistic to suggest that Speaking is the most important language skill for the workplace, except in service industries and other professional settings involving face-to-face contact with non-Cantonese speakers? Such questioning would, however, miss the point. What is significant is not whether the perception is accurate or otherwise : it is the fact that the perception exists. On the basis of this evidence, it seems that Sixth Form students have a very clear perception of the real-life importance of the Speaking skill. Up to now, such students have had to study English with a set of priorities geared to immediate, exam-related objectives which failed to match their perception of their longer-term needs and wants. From now on, instead of there being a mismatch, there should be a much closer fit between exam, teaching (assuming it changes to reflect exam modifications) and students' real-life goals.

The second question asked these Secondary 6 students how many English lessons they had per week/cycle and asked how many of those lessons were focused on each of the four skills. 85% of respondents reported that they had between seven and ten English lessons every week or cycle. Of those lessons, two to four focused on Reading (according to 66% of respondents), two to four on Writing (according to 77%), two on Listening (according to 73%) and zero to one on Speaking (according to 63%). While such perceptions cannot be interpreted as an accurate reflection of what actually takes place in classrooms, they seem to confirm the widely-held impression that exams in Hong Kong exert a strong backwash effect on the focus and content of teaching.

The third question asked respondents how often in their English lessons they were required to take part in English in such activities as question/answers to teacher, individual presentations/speeches, pairwork with another student and group discussions with other students. The wording, of course, begs all sorts of questions, since it assumes a fairly uniform interpretation of the word *often* as well as of each of the four activities. Nevertheless, it is interesting to note the responses. On a scale of 1 to 9, with 1 representing Very Often and 9 Never, Questions/answers to teacher had a mean response of 3.9, with its frequency being rated between 1 and 4 by 58% of respondents. Group discussion with other students had the same mean response of 3.9, but was ranked between 1 and 4 by a slightly higher number of respondents (63%), while Pairwork with another student had a mean response of 4.3 and was rated between 1 and 4 by 57% of respondents. The least frequent activity, according to the respondents, was Individual Presentations/Speeches with a mean response of 5.

Whatever the respondents' interpretation of *often* and their understanding of terms like pairwork and group discussion, it seems reasonable to assume that less teacher-centred practices may not be as foreign to the Sixth Form English classroom as might have been implied earlier in discussion of *The Teacher factor*. This would seem consistent with responses to the fourth and final question in the questionnaire, which asked respondents to rate their personal confidence in a number of areas: speaking English in general, speaking in English to other Chinese students, speaking in English to their teacher(s), speaking in English to native-English speakers, taking part in group discussion in English, and giving an individual spoken presentation in English. Again, respondents were asked to use a scale of 1 to 9, with 1 representing Very Confident and 9 Not At All Confident. In every case, the mean was somewhat below 5, suggesting that most Sixth Form students in Hong Kong possess a moderately high level of confidence in speaking English. Speaking in English to other Chinese students and taking part in group discussion in English were the areas in which respondents appeared to feel most confident, with a confidence rating of between 1 and 4 from 62% of respondents for the former and from 60% for the latter.

## Conclusion

It is clear that, for a variety of reasons including pressure on the timetable from other subjects, the backwash effect of the UE Oral upon English teaching in the Sixth Form will take some time to settle into a pattern. It is the hope and assumption, however, that there will be positive backwash. The examination-oriented attitudes of Hong Kong teachers and students make this a reasonable assumption. The fact that this exam component has sufficient weighting to have a significant impact upon a student's future should also make an important contribution: informal feedback from a number of teachers certainly reinforces the view that 18% (and parity with all the other components bar one) is enough to oblige teachers and students to take the Oral seriously.

The questionnaire would seem to support the assumption in at least two ways. First, the finding that students in the Sixth Form consider Speaking to be of such importance to their future job prospects suggests that they may be psychologically predisposed towards a modification of the UE exam to include an Oral and, by extension, towards a related modification of the teaching leading up to that exam. Certainly, this congruence between exam goals and real-life goals is more likely to promote backwash than to inhibit it.

Second, from what the students say, it appears that such activities as group discussion and pairwork, which one would expect to be an essential part of effective teaching of the Speaking skill, may already be relatively familiar to many students and part of the repertoire of techniques employed by the majority of Hong Kong teachers of English. This interpretation may be over-optimistic: certainly, it does not seem to fit with the view of Hong Kong teachers focusing very explicitly on the exam, as put forward by Johnson (1989) and Morris (1985) and referred to earlier. However, it would not seem an unreasonable interpretation given the levels of confidence students reported in directly related areas. The points mentioned earlier in discussion of *The Teacher factor* may well apply to a number of teachers, but perhaps fewer than one might have feared. The UE Oral, therefore, may be building upon, reinforcing and extending what many teachers and students are already doing, rather than seeking to initiate a radical change. If so, there would seem to be a good chance that the Oral will have the desired backwash effect.

As Alderson and Wall suggest (Alderson and Wall 1992:18-19), there is clearly a need for more research into backwash in order that we might understand better what it is and how it works. To this end, a small-scale research study is currently being conducted to investigate the effects of the introduction of the

UE Oral upon the development of students' spoken English proficiency in the Sixth Form. In addition, a larger-scale project, including classroom-based research, is being designed to investigate the backwash effects of the 1996 changes to the HKCEE English exam. It is hoped that studies of this sort will enable us in future to go beyond speculation and to make more informed decisions about using backwash.

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# Empowering Teachers and Students: The Whole-language Philosophy in the Classroom

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This paper discusses the philosophy of the whole language approach in schools. It elaborates the theory base and applications of whole language in the classroom. It is argued in this paper that language, human development and thinking are dependent on each other in the process of learning. The most effective way of helping learners to learn is to engage them in situations of active learning. The whole language approach advocated here can create and foster an environment which supports interactive community learning for interactive learning. It is therefore a viable means to revive classroom teaching and language learning because both the teacher and learner are empowered in this approach.

### 賦予教師及學生力量：全語文教學的哲理

[illegible]

## Introduction

Today's school children tend to read (or write) less and less, some even choose not to read (or write) if they can. This is true not only in Hong Kong but also in other countries. Bunbury's (1985) study entitled "Books? A Thing You Only Read At School" investigated both primary and secondary students in Australia, and the conclusions are quite revealing. Cambourne (1988) termed these children as *A-literate*. The A is short for "alienated from". Such a description of today's school children reflects a serious problem in teaching and learning. Judging from the author's contact with schools in Hong Kong, this problem is strongly felt by many teachers. A general feeling is that school children need to be pushed to study and would seldom or never initiate reading on their own, during school term or in the holidays.

The tendency to avoid reading among students is perhaps most common in language learning, both the Chinese and English languages. One primary school English teacher I recently talked to lamented that almost all her students are non-lovers of books. She teaches in one of the most prestigious primary schools and still she made such a comment. She blamed it on the present educational system that places too much emphasis on tests and examinations. She knows that most of her students can do very well in examinations, but she is not sure they know how to think because they are used to knowledge being spoon-fed. Conscientious teachers would from time to time ask what is wrong with their teaching. Despite the measures to improve language teaching and the education system in recent years (for example, the recommendations in Education Commission Reports Nos. 4 and 5), most of the students remain passive learners and non-readers as reported by teachers.

There is no easy solution to tackling the problem of children and young people not choosing to read. However, in the U.S.A., Canada, Australia, New Zealand and England, teachers have been quietly involved in the past decade in a "whole language" movement of helping children to learn in their language classroom (Weaver, 1990). The purpose is to motivate and help children to view reading and writing as natural behaviours, not something only done in the classroom.

In this connection, this article aims at introducing the "whole language" approach, a grass-root movement by teachers who were dissatisfied with the prescribed curriculum which was ineffective in helping students read and write. "Whole language" is a theoretical perspective and also a movement affecting classroom instruction and research. In this article, I shall explore the philosophy of the whole language movement and its possible application in Hong Kong language classrooms.

## Whole Language Movement

### *Whole language: the term*

As mentioned earlier, *whole language* is a grass-roots movement. It started with teachers' discontent with the teaching of reading in the elementary schools, primarily the popular Basal Readers in the U.S.A., which view language learning as parts to be learnt and assume that when these parts are mastered in a hierarchical order, students will be able to read and write.

The term whole language was first used by educators in the 70's to examine how English-speaking children learn to read. Har-te and Burke (1977) described how teachers explored and developed a theoretical view of the reading process, and one of the paradigms was termed a whole language view of reading. Ken Goodman and Yetta Goodman wrote an occasional paper entitled "A whole language comprehension-centred reading curriculum" in 1979. All these educators asserted that language is whole (hence the name), and that the sums of the parts of it do not make the whole. Therefore the attempt to fragment it into parts, into grammatical patterns, vocabulary lists, or phonics would make learning unnatural and thus hard.

In 1978, the first teacher support group called Teachers Applying Whole Language (TAWL) was formed in the U.S.A. A teacher support group in Canada, Child-centred, Experience-based Learning (CEL) presented whole-language teaching and learning in 1980. Subsequently, workshops about whole language teaching and learning began to flourish in the 80's. The movement in the teaching of reading has developed over the years and has encompassed writing and then the processes of teaching and learning in the classroom (Rigg 1991).

What is advocated in whole language reading is a holistic way to approach language learning. Goodman (1986) contended that language should be kept whole and involve children in using it functionally and purposefully to meet their own needs from the very start of school. He criticized school traditions which have actually hindered the language development of children. He further commented that in schools, language learning is broken up into bite-size, abstract pieces, in the hope of making it easy for children. The natural purpose of language — the communication of meaning — is postponed. This artificial way of learning makes language very hard to learn.

### *Definition*

Throughout the years of development, whole language has meant different things to different people because teachers have arrived at whole language by way of their own unique path (Watson 1989). For example, the following definitions are given by prominent advocates of whole language:

> "whole language is a philosophy, a belief system about the nature of learning and how it can be fostered in classrooms and schools. It is not an approach per se, though of course some kinds of activities can reasonably be characterised as whole language because they are consonant with this philosophy, while others are logically rejected by the philosophy." (Weaver 1990, p.3)

> "Whole language is clearly a lot of things to a lot of people: it's not a dogma to be narrowly practiced. It's a way of bringing together a view of language, a view of learning, and a view of people, in particular two special groups of people: kids and teachers." (Goodman 1986, p.5)

> "It is most likely that the popular use of the term whole language came from teachers who were becoming aware of the knowledge explosion surrounding oral and written language development and the reading and writing processes. ... With this new knowledge, teachers who were developing insights about language learning in school realized that students needed to use language to solve problems that were significant and meaningful to their daily lives in order to take charge of their own learning. ... At the same time, they realized that they had to change their views about how language was learned and their role as teachers of language." (Goodman 1989, p.115)

> "Whole language: Written and oral language in connected discourse in a meaningful contextual setting." (Anderson 1984, p.616)

> "Whole language is a way of thinking, a way of living and learning with children in classrooms." (Bird 1987, p.4)

Despite the different views of these authors, we can still find some common ground in their definitions. It is understood to be a philosophy in teaching and learning that students are in the centre of learning, that language learning is meaningful and functional. Teachers have to change their traditional role of only transmitting knowledge to working with students and helping them to learn.

### *Theory base and applications of whole language*

Whole Language operates by exploring ways in which theories of language, thought and learning work together in a holistic way and in support of each other in human development. Teachers base their classroom decisions on these theories and make the best adjustment for their students. One may point out that these theories already existed and have been adopted in school learning in one way or another. However, what makes Whole Language different from the other school reforms is: *This is a teacher choice movement.* Teachers are the change initiators and together with the learners, they are in control of what they are capable of doing. In what follows, the major theories included in Whole Language and the views adopted by Whole Language practitioners will be discussed.

### *Language learning*

All children learn their oral language naturally and in a comparatively short period of time. There is an obvious need for them to actively engage in the learning process, to demand, to respond, and to interact. There is also a proper environment for them to be immersed in, with support from concerned and caring persons. In this sense, language is a social product and it exists naturally with the special kind of culture that develops with it.

Halliday (1975) asserted a semiotic approach to language learning, a system of meaningful behaviour. Language develops in the service of meaning, and is meaningful when it serves its function. What is important in his view of language development is that language exists in the context of a society. Language can be "instrumental", "interactional", "personal", or "heuristic". It is the individual's exploration of the environment that enhances his language development as well as his personal growth.

Language in the written form can be learnt naturally and easily in the same way, if learners are provided with enough support and the same kinds of meaningful contextual uses of language (Cambourne 1988, Goodman 1986). Goodman (1986) advocated that teachers can work with children in the natural direction of their growth. He claimed that language learning is easy when it is "real and natural", "whole", "sensible", "interesting" and "relevant", and when the learner has purpose and ownership of it, and when it is used in social and real contexts. That is why any attempt to break up the language into parts would make learning abstract and irrelevant.

Cambourne (1988) elaborated on how to translate and transfer the conditions of oral language learning to literacy learning. He argued that immersion in different written forms and contextually-relevant demonstrations are the necessary prerequisites for learners to use and control these forms. Furthermore, learners need to be engaged in real and relevant written acts which are perceived as "owned" by them. In this way, they are willing to take responsibility. Teacher expectations are also very important in determining the success of the learners. Moreover, teachers have to accept students' errors as "approximations" of the real language system and only developmental. Thus, their response to all these must be accepting and redirect the learner to possible resources if necessary. It is in this kind of non-threatening environment that learners will fully realise their potential for learning.

## *Language, thought and human development*

Halliday perceived language development in the child as shaped and guided by the need to understand and be understood. In turn, the language shapes the way the child thinks. His view is a functional one. Both Piaget (1960) and Vygotsky (1962) investigated children's language and thinking, but they took different stances. Piaget viewed language as an outside tool or agent in children's development of thought. Language serves them as symbols for conveying meanings to others. However, Vygotsky asserted that as children learn language they also learn how to mean things the way their elders do. Through interactions with others, children learn how to explain their own thinking to others as they listen and learn from them.

Though Piaget and Vygotsky differed in their views of the function and source of language, they both acknowledged the important relationship between language and learning. Vygotsky attested that language is social and has two functions: communication with others and self-direction. Piaget viewed it in the reverse and claimed that language originates in the individual and is the expression of thought for communication with others. Vygotsky's perspective of "social learning" is a view much advocated by the whole language educators. The best occasions for the learner to learn, Vygotsky maintains, are those when a learner is engaged with a task beyond his immediate capability and there is a peer or an adult as facilitator to help in a supportive environment. This is termed the zone of proximal development. Thus, a thriving situation for learning to take place would be one in a social context, with support from peers or the teacher, stimulating the active use of language.

It is obvious, from what has been presented above, that the whole language classroom encourages learners to make personal links with meaning and experience through reading and writing. It also encourages learners to work together in a collaborative manner. Learners share with each other about their reading and writing, the problems they are faced with. They learn and grow with the development of their language and thinking. It is the spirit of community within the classroom that learners learn together, with guidance and support from the teacher.

## *Learning*

Dewey, Piaget and Vygotsky all believed that the learner must be actively engaged in the learning act if learning is to occur. Dewey (1943) envisioned language as one of the tools for the student to "construct, create, and actively inquire" in classrooms. While langauge and thinking develop together, knowledge is constructed through the building up of concepts and schemas. In helping students to learn in school, Dewey emphasized the importance of integration of the curriculum. He argued that all disciplines grow out of relations in the common world. If teachers are to prepare the learner for life, his studies should naturally be integrated. Thus, reading, writing and oral language should be taught in a related way. This should be through the use of language to recount the learner's experience, form and refine his concepts and, in turn, receive and share the learning of other peers.

Dewey's view of learning by doing is much upheld by whole language advocates. The students in whole language classrooms are expected to participate actively in the learning processes. They can initiate, comment, respond, and actively engage themselves in learning acts, with other peers. Whole language teachers involve students in literature, art, music, math, science, social studies, games and sports, cooking and nutrition — things of interest and importance in the students' life. They make use of the content areas to promote language learning; and through language learning, they explore the content areas.

### *Contributions of whole language in the classroom*

Over the years, schools have been bombarded by innovations and changes. New programmes may make no difference, help improve the situation, or even make the situation worse, as reported in the literature (for example, see Fullan 1991). Change for the sake of change will lead schools nowhere.

The whole language movement may be just one of those changes or fashions in schools. So what's new?

What makes the whole language movement powerful and meaningful is that it is a school reform movement mainly carried out by teachers. It is making its impact in many elementary classrooms, and is affecting secondary schools and ESL teaching (Rigg 1991). The significant influence as perceived by many is the change of approach in classroom teaching from a traditional knowledge transmission model to an interactive transactional model (Weaver 1988). The former emphasizes direct teaching and teachers are the ones who "own" the knowledge and the students are the passive receivers. However, the latter is a model of active learning. That is, learners are actively engaged with the learning environment, including books and people, in order to learn. Learning is seen as the result of complex cognitive processes that can be facilitated by teachers and enhanced by peers. It is therefore the learner's engagement in the act of learning that makes it meaningful. In this way, both the teacher and the learner are empowered in the teaching and learning processes.

As it is generally recognized that whole language is a philosophy of teaching, not a methodology per se (Weaver, 1990; Kosnik, 1991), there is no one correct way to practise whole language. The philosophy itself is a powerful force in that it recognizes the importance of the learner who is the centre of the learning activity. Teaching means nothing if there is no learning. It is the care and positive attitude towards the learner that make learning easy. It is also the expectations and support of the teacher that make the learner responsible for his own learning.

## Whole Language for Hong Kong Language Classrooms?

What is significant in the whole language movement is that it is a successful teacher initiated reform in classroom teaching. Both teachers and learners are empowered in the learning situation. Successful whole language teachers make the best use of their classroom to plan suitable language learning activities through the process of socialization, in establishing a particular classroom culture for learning (Sumara & Walker 1991). The control of literacy instruction is in the hands of teachers and students, not publishers of textbooks.

In most Hong Kong teachers' eyes, students are passive learners in the classrooms. The issue lies not only in students but in teachers as well, in the way teachers perceive teaching, and in the way teachers view how to help students to learn. The whole language approach can be an answer to help to enhance student active learning.

### *Principles and beliefs of whole language*

Based on the theories of whole language and my experience with language teaching and learning in Hong Kong, I believe the following principles can be used as guidelines to create a supportive classroom for language learning:

1. Language is for communication, and language is for functional uses; therefore language is learned most easily and best when learners are in an environment which demands the natural and meaningful uses of it.

2. Learners should be immersed in "whole" literature, real books, not only work on classified passages and work sheets. The focus is on "whole" learning, the integration of learners' social and psychological growth with language learning.

3. Learners are active participants in language learning. They should be given the opportunities to make choices about their learnings and opportunities to engage actively in the learning process.

4. Learners are encouraged to take risks, to ask questions, to express opinions, to experiment, and are not afraid to make mistakes.

5. Co-operative learning and peer collaboration are important and significant features of learning.

6. The teachers' role shifts more to that of an initiator, an organizer and one who provides support and encouragement for language learning.

### Classroom practice

The teacher has to believe in the idea that teaching and learning take place in a transactional and interactive mode. The emphasis is on learning, not teaching. The philosophy emphasizes the importance of the learner and the learner's needs as central to education. The teacher is in the position of a facilitator of learning, helping students to learn actively.

There are three areas of concern which can help teachers move towards the practice of whole language: adopting a thematic approach, incorporating student choices, and creating a community for learning.

Generally two approaches towards the thematic approach may be adopted (Lipson, Valencia, Wixson, & Peters 1993): intradisciplinary themes which typically use literature as the core; and interdisciplinary themes which incorporate other disciplines as content. The former often revolves around the works of one author, one genre (e.g. science fiction, drama), or one common topic. The latter usually has a content outline from one or several disciplines (e.g. geography, earth science, maths), or a general topic of public interest (e.g. environment, youth problems). By using a thematic approach, materials are usually from different sources and naturally different learning skills are required.

Because a theme lasts over a period of time, different learning skills will be required to organize the knowledge, retrieve information, and solve related problems, to name only a few. The four skills in language learning (reading, writing, oral and listening) are consolidated in the process of learning. Integration of these skills through a thematic approach ensures students a focus to work on, and materials around the same theme can bring together different activities to enhance the focus.

Through the thematic approach, because of the nature and outcomes of the activities, learners have to work together in pairs, in groups, or to do individual reading and research. With the teacher's planning and organization of the theme activities, a community of learning can be achieved. Learners can work in a supportive, non-threatening and co-operative atmosphere. The learning process requires the learners' active involvement and collaborative efforts.

In order to sustain learning and the motivation to learn, incorporating student input is a necessary component. As mentioned at the beginning of this section, self choice is a necessary area to help students learn through the whole language approach. Student choice can be brought in through initial and constant consultation, taking students' interests and needs into consideration when selecting and planning the theme and activities. Nunan's (1988) student-centred approach can be a model for reference. Throughout the thematic activities, students can be given choices, for example, about how to get tasks finished, with whom to work, and where to find the source of information. Through involvement in the learning process, students may perceive that they "own" the learning and they are "responsible" for the outcomes of it.

## Conclusion

Fullan (1991) elaborated on the meaning of educational change. He asserted that meaning is the key to school improvement. For school improvement to take place, the concerned parties have to put in extra effort. However, there are incentives and disincentives for putting forth the extra effort to bring about change. If the change has meaning to the individual, the change will be recognized by him. Whole language is the kind of school improvement in which both the teacher and learner see relevant meaning. Through this approach, they are empowered to make teaching and learning effective and meaningful.

If teachers regard teaching as a profession, and they are willing to take up challenges to improve their teaching and to make learning worthwhile for their students, the whole language approach is certainly a viable means to revive language teaching in the school.

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# A Survey of Journals on Mathematics Education

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An important but often neglected obligation of teachers is continuing professional development. A part of being a professional mathematics teacher is knowing about current directions and advancement in mathematics education. A mathematics teacher can keep abreast of modern developments in mathematics education and new approaches to mathematics teaching by reading journals. This is a report of the author's survey on journals useful for secondary school mathematics teachers in Hong Kong. The report includes only journals published in English but an appendix of a highly selective list of journals in Chinese is also included. Teachers are strongly requested to recommend some of these journals, particularly those for students, for their school libraries, to recommend selected articles for students, and to encourage students to write articles or solve problems contained therein.

## 數學教育期刊綜覽

[illegible]

An important but often neglected obligation of teachers is continuing professional development. A part of being a professional mathematics teacher is knowing about current directions and advancement in mathematics education. A mathematics teacher can keep abreast of modern developments in mathematics education and new approaches to mathematics teaching by reading journals.

This is a report of the author's survey on journals useful for secondary school mathematics teachers in Hong Kong. The report includes only journals published in English but an appendix of a highly selective list of journals in Chinese is also included. As expected, most of these journals in English are published in the U.S.A. or Britain. However, I have also included journals published in Australia, Canada, Malaysia, Singapore, South Africa as well as international journals published in Germany, the Netherlands and Slovak. These journals are classified by the author into the following areas: *curriculum and instruction, advanced mathematics, research, problem-solving, special topics* and *journals for students*. Because of the difference in mathematics curricula across different countries, the author has included a number of American journals on undergraduate mathematics which overlaps with our sixth form mathematics. Journals focusing entirely on primary school mathematics, such as the *Arithmetic Teacher*, are excluded. Out-of-print journals, such as the *Ontario Secondary School Mathematics Bulletin*, and journals, such as *Science and Education*, which cover much broader areas including mathematics education, are also excluded. Wherever appropriate, the journals are categorised into three levels — junior (secondary 1-3), intermediate (secondary 4-5) and senior (secondary 6-7) to give some hints to the teachers. However, these levels are not clear-cut, because the journals are published in other countries with different mathematics curricula. Most of the journals can be found in the Library of The University of Hong Kong while the few popular ones are also stocked by some other libraries of local tertiary institutions. For those journals which cannot be located in local libraries, readers may contact the author for further information. More detailed information about each journal, such as cost of subscription and addresses for subscription and submission of articles, can be readily found in any current issue of each journal. The ordering of the journals in each section reflects roughly the author's preference regarding the value of the journal to local secondary schools but readers are advised to read the journals and make judgement themselves.

Teachers are strongly requested to recommend some of these journals, particularly those for students, for their school libraries, to recommend selected articles for students, and to encourage students to write articles or solve problems contained therein.

## Journals on Curriculum and Instruction

### Mathematics Teacher (*Level: Intermediate*)

With secondary mathematics teachers as its primary audience, the *Mathematics Teacher* is directed at supporting and improving the teaching and learning of quality mathematics. In serving the needs of its varied audience, the journal assumes many roles. It is a valuable source of classroom-tested ideas as well as an agent of change for producing positive improvements in both the curricula and pedagogy of mathematics education. It is also a mechanism for maintaining communication among teachers of mathematics in addition to helping teachers stay current with new resources by including announcements of professional activities and reviews of new technology, textbooks, products and projects. Regular columns include Tips for Beginners, Sharing Teaching Ideas, Activities and Applications. There are nine issues (September — May) for each school year published by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics in the U.S.A.

### ***The Mathematical Gazette*** *(Level: Senior)*

*The Mathematical Gazette* is published four times a year by the Mathematical Association in Britain. It provides a specialist service to teachers of mathematics to fifth form and above, and is one of the leading journals in its field. It publishes articles and notes about the teaching and learning of mathematics and also substantial expositions of attractive areas of mathematics. Each issue also includes extensive journal and book reviews, problem and stamp corners and Mathematical People — a series on people from right across the mathematical spectrum.

### ***Teaching Statistics*** *(Level: All)*

*Teaching Statistics* seeks to help those who are teaching statistics. The emphasis of the articles is on teaching and the classroom. The aim is to inform, entertain, encourage and enlighten all who use statistics in their teaching or who teach statistics. Regular features include data bank, problem page, book reviews, computing corner, news and notes, historical perspective, project parade, curriculum matters, research report and practical activities. The journal is published three times per year in Britain.

### ***The College Mathematics Journal*** *(Level: Senior)*

*The College Mathematics Journal* is published five times a year by the Mathematical Association of America. It contains a wealth of material for all who are interested in undergraduate mathematics and for any teacher interested in enrichment materials for high school students. Issues of the journal contain stimulating expository articles on all aspects of mathematics, Classroom Capsules to sharpen a teacher's pedagogical insights and inspire their instruction, surveys of the mathematical literature, challenging problems and solutions, and survey articles that will keep educators current. Two special features of the journal are a series of occasional interviews with well-known mathematicians and occasional debates on issues of current concern to the mathematical community.

### ***Consortium*** *(Level: Intermediate)*

The *Consortium* newsletter provides fresh applications and timely articles for the secondary level teacher. There are four issues per year published by the Consortium for Mathematics and its Applications in the U.S.A. In fields such as discrete mathematics, modelling, computer science, and historical mathematics, articles from *Consortium* will invigorate teachers' lesson plans and demonstrate the usefulness of mathematics to a wide variety of professions and subjects. Regular features include Math Today (latest developments in mathematics), Problems, Puzzles and Paradoxes, the Idea Exchange (successful classroom lessons and strategies), Historical Notes, Modeler's Corner (introducing students to the world of mathematical modelling), Computers (using computers and graphic calculators to solve real world problems), the USA Mathematical Talent Search (a national problem-solving competition) and the HiMAP (High School Mathematics and its Applications Project) Pull-Out Section (for photocopying a lesson that brings mathematics to life for students).

### ***Teaching Mathematics and Its Applications*** *(Level: Senior)*

This journal, published by the Institute of Mathematics and its Applications in Britain, aims to provide mathematics teachers in secondary and tertiary education with interesting and stimulating material which can be used in their teaching. The journal promotes the study of applicable mathematics through the publication of articles related to the modelling process. Particular emphasis is placed on the translation of a real situation to a mathematical model and on the verification and interpretation of the mathematical solution. The mathematical techniques used do not go beyond sixth form level and at very most first year undergraduate level. There are four issues in each volume.

### ***International Journal of Mathematical Education in Science and Technology*** *(Level: Senior and above)*

This journal is published bimonthly in the U.K. to provide a medium by which a range of experience in mathematical education can be presented, assimilated and eventually adapted to everyday needs in schools, colleges, polytechnics, universities, industry and commerce. Mathematical models arising from real situations, the use of computers, new teaching aids and techniques form an important feature.

### ***Mathematics and Computer Education*** *(Level: Senior)*

*Mathematics and Computer Education* is a journal devoted to the development of materials for the improvement of classroom effectiveness in the first years of college as well as senior high schools. There are three issues per year published in the U.S.A.

### ***Primus*** *(Level: Senior)*

*Primus* is a refereed quarterly published by the Rose-Hulman Institute of Technology in the U.S.A. The journal is a rich forum for the exchange of ideas in mathematics education at the college level and is devoted to down-to-earth questions about undergraduate mathematics teaching. The announced goals are to bring forth problems and activities, to share resources, to discuss issues, to relate experiences, to report results, and to document improvements and developments.

### The Journal of Undergraduate Mathematics and Its Applications *(Level: Senior)*

*The UMAP Journal*, published quarterly by the Consortium for Mathematics and its Applications in the U.S.A., blends up-to-date teaching modules (lesson-length booklets designed to instruct students in the professional applications of mathematics) with commentaries and articles to create a boldly different periodical.

### Mathematics in School *(Level: Junior)*

*Mathematics in School* is a lively journal providing a specialist service to mathematics teachers of the 7-16 age group. Contributions come from mathematics practitioners at all levels, and reflect current thinking and practice, exploring possible developments and sharing practical experience. Each issue of *Mathematics in School* contains articles on mathematics teaching at both primary and secondary level, and provides practical advice on general teaching methods, information on the analysis of official reports and reviews of classroom-based projects and surveys. *Mathematics in School* looks at new developments and where they might lead as well as sharing the practical experience of teachers. Overflowing with practical ideas, this journal encourages group work, and allows pupils to think through ideas independently. Primarily a classroom tool, all the ideas are designed to be used immediately with the minimum of amendment. Many of the ideas in *Mathematics in School* use paper sculpture, diagrams and puzzles to get across the ideas and principles involved. Regular features include a highly successful Maths Resource page, which gives excellent master copies of cut-out equipment, together with work cards which can easily be reproduced for teachers to use in the classroom. There are also sections on mathematics games workshop, microcomputers and calculators, reviews of books and equipment, and a puzzles, pastimes and problems page. The journal is published five times per year by the Mathematical Association in Britain.

### For The Learning of Mathematics *(Level: All)*

The *FLM* aims to stimulate reflection on and study of the practices and theories of mathematics education at all levels; to generate productive discussion; to encourage enquiry and research; to promote criticism and evaluation of ideas and procedures current in the field. It is intended for the mathematics educator who is aware that the learning and teaching of mathematics are complex enterprises about which much remains to be revealed and understood. The journal is published three times a year in Canada.

### Australian Mathematics Teacher
*(Level: Junior/Intermediate)*

*Australian Mathematics Teacher* is an official publication of the Australian Association of Mathematics Teachers. It is designed to serve as a medium both for the exchange of ideas and experiences in the teaching of mathematics at the junior secondary school level, and for the instruction of teachers in the trends and developments in mathematics education. Regular features include sections on The Making of Mathematics (history), Reflections on Resources, CACTUS (calculator and computer technology user service) and Diversions (problems and solutions). The journal is published four times per year.

### Australian Senior Mathematics Journal *(Level: Senior)*

The *ASMJ* is another journal of the Australian Association of Mathematics Teachers devoted to the teaching and learning of mathematics in the last two years of secondary school and the early years of tertiary education. There are two issues per year.

### Mathematics Teaching *(Level: Junior)*

The journal is published quarterly by the Association of Teachers of Mathematics in Britain. The focus of this journal is on the learning and teaching of mathematics from pre-school to junior secondary levels.

### School Science and Mathematics
*(Level: Junior/Intermediate)*

*School Science and Mathematics* is published monthly, October through May, by the School Science and Mathematics Association in the U.S.A. The focus is on science and mathematics education in elementary and middle schools. In particular, emphasis is placed on the relation between science and mathematics education in school. Regular features include software and book reviews, and a problems department.

### New York State Mathematics Teachers' Journal
*(Level: Intermediate)*

This journal is published three times a year by the Association of Mathematics Teachers of New York State. In addition to articles on the teaching of mathematics in school, this journal also incorporates regular sections such as Big Ideas from Simple Materials, About Mathematical Problem Solving, and Historically Speaking.

### Journal of Science and Mathematics Education in Southeast Asia *(Level: Junior/Intermediate)*

This journal is published twice a year by the SEAMEO Regional Centre for Education in Science and Mathematics (RECSAM) in Malaysia. It is a medium for the exchange of ideas and dissemination of information in science and mathematics education for a wide range of readership.

**Mathematics Focus** *(Level: Junior/Intermediate)*

*Mathematics Focus* is a periodical collection of motivating and stimulating resources aimed at enhancing mathematics teaching in secondary schools. Regular features include worksheets, problems, applications, project ideas, games, puzzles, algorithms and software. Teachers' notes and solutions are provided.

## Journals on Advanced Mathematics

**Mathematics Magazine** *(Level: Senior and above)*

*The Mathematics Magazine*, published five times a year by the Mathematical Association of America, features informal mathematical articles and notes, written in a lively expository style, which will appeal to faculty and students at the undergraduate level. The *Magazine* publishes general survey articles, notes on attractive problems, and articles on history and philosophy of mathematics. A special feature of the Problems Section is the Quickies whose solutions are short and elegant. The Reviews calls attention to attractive books and articles, published in the U.S.A. and abroad, which will be of special interest to the professional mathematician. News and Letters features early publication of problems and solutions from the Olympiads and Putnam Competitions. *Mathematics Magazine* is the place to go for lively exposition of mathematics and an overview of current developments in the field.

***The American Mathematical Monthly***
*(Level: Senior and above)*

The *Monthly* is one of the world's most distinguished journals of mathematical exposition. Each of its ten yearly issues contains articles on new developments in mathematical research, review articles on fields that are in interesting states of development, shorter mathematical notes that bring interesting viewpoints on mathematics, notes for teachers that offer new ways to present mathematical ideas in the classroom, reviews of new books and software, and the shorter Telegraphic Reviews that provide a fairly complete survey of recent books. The Problems Section poses challenging elementary and advanced problems with contributed solutions appearing in later issues. The readership of the *Monthly* is intended to include everybody who is mathematically inclined, including professional mathematicians and students of mathematics at all collegiate levels. Articles in the *Monthly* are supposed to inform and to entertain.

***The Mathematical Intelligencer***
*(Level: Senior and above)*

*The Mathematical Intelligencer* publishes articles about mathematics, about mathematicians, and about the history and culture of mathematics rather than being mathematical articles. Articles in it set out to inform and entertain a broad audience of mathematicians, including many mathematicians who are not specialists in the subject of the article in a relaxed expository style. Regular columns include Years Ago, The Mathematical Tourist, Mathematical Entertainments, Reviews and Stamp Corner. There are four issues each year published by Springer-Verlag New York.

## Journals on Research

***International Reviews on Mathematical Education (Zentralblatt Für Didaktik Der mathematik)***

The *ZDM* is an information and reference journal in mathematicse ducation from pre-school level to teacher training and adult education, published bimonthly by Fachinformationszentrum Karlsruhe in Germany. Each issue contains an articles and a documentation section. The articles section provides book reviews, analyses, and information. In the book reviews section important publications on the teaching of mathematics are reviewed in detail. In the analyses section experts discuss central problems in the field of mathematics education. The information section gives surveys, literature reports, reports on international conferences, discusses teaching models and informs about future events. The main concern of *ZDM* is with documentation of current literature. Articles of more than 500 international journals and other serial publications are reviewed in *ZDM*. In addition to journal particles *ZDM* abstracts and indexes textbooks, audio-visual media, games, teaching aids, reports, curricula, dissertations and proceedings from the following fields: mathematics teaching from elementary school to university and adult education; elementary mathematics and applications; recreational mathematics and popular expositions of mathematics; basic pedagogical and psychological issues for mathematics and science education. Each issue contains about 700 references. Citations in ZDM provide bibliographic data and abstracts, mostly in English. There are four indices (author, subject, corporate entries and journals) to facilate pin-pointed retrieval of documents.

***Educational Studies in Mathematics***

*Educational Studies in Mathematics* presents new ideas and developments which are considered to be of major importance to those working in the field of mathematical education. It seeks to reflect both the variety of research concerns within this field and the range of methods used to study them. It deals with didactical, methodological and pedagogical subjects rather than with specific programmes for teaching mathematics. All papers are strictly refereed and the emphasis is on high-level articles which are of more than local or national interest. There are six issues each year published in the Netherlands.

### *Journal for Research in Mathematics Education*

This official journal of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics is devoted to the interests of teachers of mathematics and mathematics education at all levels — pre-school through adult. The *JRME* is a forum for disciplined inquiry into the teaching and learning of mathematics. It publishes a variety of types of high-quality manuscripts — reports of research, including experiments, case studies, surveys, philosophical studies, and historical studies; articles about research, including literature reviews and theoretical analyses; brief reports of research; critiques of articles and books; brief commentaries on issues pertaining to research. There are five issues per school year.

### *The Journal of Mathematical Behavior*

*The Journal of Mathematical Behavior* is published quarterly in the U.S.A. to assist in interventions that improve the teaching and learning of mathematics, and to help develop a deeper understanding of how people learn and use mathematics. It publishes articles on postulated theories of human information processing that can serve as a foundation for studying mathematical thinking, important issues or innovations dealing with curriculum or pedagogy, questions of research methodology or intervention strategies, and uses and implications of computers and calculators.

### *Mathematics Education Research Journal*

This is an official journal of the Mathematics Education Research Group of Australasia. There are two issues each year.

### *Acta Didactica Universitatis Comenianae, Mathematics*

The *ADUC* is a new annual English journal published by the Comenius University in Slovak. It is open to articles concerning the whole field of mathematics education. Apart from reports of completed research projects, the journal also publishes preliminary reports of ongoing research.

### *Focus on Learning Problems in Mathematics*

The objective of *FOCUS* is to make available the current research, methods of identification, diagnosis, and remediation of learning problems in mathematics. It is published four times a year by the Center for Teaching/Learning of Mathematics in the U.S.A.

## Journals on Problem-Solving

### **Mathematics Competitions** *(Level: Junior/Intermediate)*

*Mathematics Competitions* is the journal of the World Federation of National Mathematics Competitions. There are two issues per year. It is a major vehicle for exchanging ideas and information for all people involved with mathematics competitions at school, regional and national levels.

### *Crux Mathematicorum* *(Level: Senior)*

*Crux* is a problem-solving journal at the senior secondary and university undergraduate levels for those who practise or teach mathematics. Its purpose is primarily educational, but it serves also those who read it for professional, cultural or recreational reasons. *Crux* has been referred to as "the best problem journal in the world". It is a source of Olympiad and other contest problems. *Crux* is published monthly (except July and August) by the Canadian Mathematical Society.

### *Mathematics and Informatics* *(Level: Senior)*

*Mathematics and Informatics* is an international journal which publishes articles, notes, problems and solutions in school mathematics and informatics. It is devoted to teachers and students who are interested in mathematics and informatics clubs, olympiads and competitions. In addition to articles, this journal features a variety of problems which should challenge even the most advanced students. In particular, the readers of this journal will have an opportunity to take part in the International Mathematics Talent Search. Through this and various other columns, the editors hopes to build an international network of problemists — both students and professionals — and provide them with the opportunity to experience the excitement of international competitions without having to leave the comfort of their homes. There are three issues per year published in Singapore.

### *Mathematical Mayhem* *(Level: Senior)*

*Mathematical Mayhem* is a non-profit Canadian journal of high-school and college level mathematics written by and for students. It is published bimonthly, five times per year.

## Journals on Special Topics

### *Journal of Computers in Mathematics and Science Teaching* *(Level: All)*

This journal is published quarterly by the Association for Advancement of Computing in Education, which is a professional, non-profit educational organisation in the U.S.A. whose purpose is to advance the knowledge and quality of teaching and learning at all levels with computing technologies through the encouragement of scholarly inquiry related to computing in education and the dissemination of research results and their applications.

### Micromath *(Level: All)*

This is a journal of the Association of Teachers of Mathematics in the U.K. It is published three times a year. *Micromath* is concerned with encouraging debate about good practice in the learning and teaching of mathematics which makes use of calculators and computers. A variety of items relating directly to classroom activities are also included in each issue.

### Journal of Recreational Mathematics *(Level: Senior and above)*

This journal, published by the Baywood Publishing Company in the U.S.A., provides an outlet for the exploration of recreational aspects of mathematics. Most of the articles are written on the mathematics of games and puzzles and are related to elementary number theory and combinatorics. Regular columns include book reviews, problems and conjectures. There are four issues per year.

## Journals for Students

### Quantum *(Level: Senior)*

*Quantum* is a student journal of mathematics and science published by the National Science Teachers Association (U.S.A.) and the Quantum Bureau of the Russian Academy of Sciences in conjunction with the American Association of Physics Teachers and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. *Quantum* provides interesting and stimulating material that inspires thinking in mathematics and physics – challenging articles, stories, puzzles, and problems for the inquisitive, bright young people. It demonstrates and teaches the thinking paths to a problem, its solution, and its alternatives. It contains equal amount of material from both the U.S.A. and Russia. *Quantum* is based on material from *Kvant* (which means *Quantum* in Russian), a unique popular science monthly that has circulated in the former U.S.S.R. for 20 years. During this period, *Kvant* became the favourite magazine of all Soviet high school students interested in mathematics, physics, and science in general. Its current readership is over 200,000. There are six colourful issues per school year.

### Mathematical Spectrum *(Level: Intermediate/Senior)*

*Mathematical Spectrum* is a British journal for students and teachers in schools, colleges and universities, as well as the general reader interested in mathematics. There are four issues in each school year. Articles published in *Mathematical Spectrum* deal with the entire range of mathematical disciplines (pure mathematics, applied mathematics, statistics, operational research, computing science, numerical analysis, biomathematics). Both expository and historical material are included, as well as elementary research and information on educational opportunities and careers in mathematics. There is also a section devoted to problems.

### Mathematics Review *(Level: Intermediate/Senior)*

*The Mathematics Review* is the only magazine in the U.K. aimed specifically at helping sixth-form students with their coursework and examination preparation. Lively articles both explain essential mathematical concepts and illustrate how they apply to everyday life. Articles are paced to match the student's progress throughout the academic year. It provides a teaching resource for sixth-form mathematics. Each annual volume comprises four issues edited by the Mathematics Institute of the University of Warwick.

### Theta *(Level: Intermediate/Senior)*

*Theta* is a journal of general mathematics for all who teach, learn, practise, and enjoy mathematics. In particular it aims to promote and stimulate interest amongst sixth-formers, undergraduates and teachers of mathematics. *Theta* is published twice a year by the Crewe & Alsager College of Higher Education in England.

### Pi Mu Epsilon Journal *(Level: Senior)*

This journal is published twice a year by the National Hononary Mathematics Society in the U.S.A. The articles in it are usually within the grasp of high school students and are often written by undergraduate students.

### Function *(Level: Intermediate)*

*Function* is a mathematics journal addressed principally to students in the upper forms of secondary schools. It is a journal for those who are interested in mathematics. Coverage is wide — pure mathematics, statistics, computer science and applications of mathematics are all included. There are articles on recent advances in mathematics, new items in mathematics and its applications, special interest matters, such as computer chess, problems and solutions, discussions, cover diagrams, even cartoons. *Function* is published five times a year by the Monash University in Australia.

### Parabola *(Level: Intermediate)*

*Parabola* is a mathematics journal for secondary school students. Its aim is to encourage and sustain an interest in mathematics among students. There are three issues per year published by the University of New South Wales in Australia.

### Mathematical Digest *(Level: Junior/Intermediate)*

*Mathematical Digest* is a quarterly journal produced by the University of Cape Town for high school pupils who enjoy mathematics. The journal has a wide circulation in (and outside) South Africa. Each

issue contains a wide variety of articles: news of mathematical developments from all over the world; articles on mathematical topics not covered by the school curriculum; new ways of looking at school mathematics; stories of famous mathematicians, past and present; book reviews; mathematical games, puzzles and problems — both serious and frivolous; anecdotes, quotable quotes, poems, jokes and cartoons.

**Plus** *(Level: Junior)*

*Plus* is a mathematics periodical for secondary school pupils. It includes articles on mathematics to enrich and enlarge normal classroom material, suggestions for investigations, puzzles and problems and activities to pursue at a mathematics club. *Plus* is published three times a year by the Mathematics Association in the U.K.

## 附錄：中文數學教育期刊

自八十年代初以來，中國內地出版了不少有關中學數學教育的期刊，內容多是針對考試，對香港的師生參考價值不高。但有幾份全國性的期刊較有特色，值得香港的師生參考。這裏我還介紹了一份台灣的數學期刊。

### 數學教學

中國內地所出版的眾多數學教育期刊中，這本由華東師範大學數學系編輯的雙月刊是質素最好的，內容比較嚴謹、充實和平衡。每期都有不少可讀性高的文章，並經常介紹外國數學教育的發展。有興趣的讀者可向香港數理教育學會訂閱。

### 數學傳播

這是台灣中央研究院數學研究所出版的以傳播數學知識及促進數學教育為宗旨的季刊。讀者對象包括中學、大學和研究院師生。內容包括專題論述、教學心得、問題研討及書評書介。

### 中學生數學

《中學生數學》是中國數學會普及工作委員會、北京數學會和首都師範大學數學系編輯的雙月刊，對象是中國全國的中學生。內容分基礎知識、思路方法與技巧、專題講座、數學史話、趣味數學、數學競賽及中學生習作等欄目，是一本不可多得，學術和趣味並重的中學生數學讀物。有興趣的讀者可向香港數理教育學會訂閱。

### 數學通報

《數學通報》是由中國數學學會和北京師範大學主辦的數學教育月刊，創刊於一九三六年。它的讀者對象是中學教師，刊登的文章主要是有關教學研究、基礎數學、數學史等。

### 數學競賽

這本不定期的專刊是湖南教育出版社所編的。內容包括數學競賽的消息、評論性文章和資料，以及與數學競賽緊密相關的初等數學研究方面有創見性的論文，是一本高質素的數學競賽期刊，對高中較為適合。

### 中等數學

這是一本由中國數學會普及工作委員會、天津市數學學會和天津師範大學數學系合辦的雙月刊。內容主要集中於數學競賽，讀者包括教師和學生。

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# Debate: An Underused Strategy to Enhance Critical Thinking in the Classroom

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Talking is one way pupils demonstrate thinking. Debate is a structured form of talking and thinking which emphasises argument and justification and is a means to encourage critical thinking in a number of subject areas in the school curriculum. It comprises opposing arguments in a formal adversarial setting. Successful use requires selection of a suitable topic which is open ended and controversial, a classroom organisation which is pupil centred and which encourages peer supported experiential learning and a teacher who accepts a classroom role as a facilitator. Planning classroom debates involves careful consideration of clarity in setting and ensuring all understand the objectives, helping pupils to comprehend the motion, selecting and organising speakers, preparing arguments, procedures in running debates and the nature of follow up.

**辯論——一個可以在教室增強批判性思考的策略，一個被忽略了的方法**

[illegible]

## Introduction

For learning to take place, pupils have to become engaged in the task of thinking. Learning is not a passive act but one which requires the participation of the pupil. The dilemma for the teacher is knowing if the pupil is engaged in the task or not. What is needed is feedback that pupils are thinking and learning. Pupil talk is one way that pupils can demonstrate participation, and research in the USA shows a clear link between achievement and level of pupil talk (Morine-Dershimer, 1987). Talk, however, needs to be purposeful if it is going to effect learning. It must be structured towards increasing knowledge and enhancing understanding and awareness. Yet talking purposefully is not easy for many children and learning how to talk is something which needs to be taught and not left to chance (Brown et al., 1984). Teaching talk, and hence the ability for pupils to come to grips with ideas in subject areas, has been shown to be most effective when a task based approach is used. Debate is one such task.

Debate is a way of structuring and encouraging talk in schools involving logical and critical thinking and is a classroom strategy with considerable potential if suitably organised. Brown and her associates make the point that different types of task elicit different types of language and pose different communication problems for the pupil. Debate often involves speakers communicating abstract notions, for instance in argument and justification. This can present particular difficulties for younger or less able children. Thus, there is often nothing more destructive than a debating exercise thought up on the spur of the moment. This is counter productive in that it may be badly presented by the students, boring to the audience which is listening and serve little purpose other than to fill a lesson. On the other hand debating, when well prepared, and with a knowledge of the techniques to be employed, leads to an improvement in learning ability by both presenter and listener. Debate, however, receives surprisingly little mention in books on teaching methods. The purpose of this article is to outline the nature of debate as a form of talk, discuss the prerequisites for successful debating and offer some practical suggestions for conducting debates in the classroom.

In Hong Kong, debates are frequently just an extra curricular activity in schools. Inter or intra-school debating competitions of a formal kind are seen as a means of honing thinking and arguing skills particularly through the medium of English. Debate can, however, have a wider function as a general classroom strategy for use in subject teaching in any language. It is this which is the focus here because a number of subjects are starting to structure learning in ways which make debate a useful strategy to be included amongst the range available. Illustrations of use in Hong Kong are given, for example, in Stimpson and Tao (1993). Issues based teaching in geography, Science, Technology and Society (STS) in science and Liberal Studies are areas where pupils are presented with problems in which

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solutions are debatable.

Debate is useful where the aim is to enhance pupils' ability to marshall and organise their ideas in a concise and readily understandable manner. It is a strategy within a jurisprudential inquiry model of teaching (Joyce and Weil, 1986) in which the teaching seeks to help young people learn how to resolve complex controversial issues and negotiate differences in positions held in society. It reflects the co-operative, experiential group or team learning approach of Slavin (1984) in which teachers work with large sections of classes (or even whole classes) to master academic content and or skills. The keynote is peer support and the interdependence of pupils within the learning task (Arends, 1989) and draws on the field of social psychology as a basis for framing learning. Slavin (1986), whilst not looking specifically at classroom debate but rather at the broader field of co-operative learning in general, reviewed 45 studies of this approach across a range of age groups and subjects, including science, mathematics, English, geography and social studies. He noted that in 37 of the studies improved learning, in comparison with control groups, was observed with no difference in the remaining eight.

Debate can also help to circumvent the problems examiners frequently report of pupils' over-reliance on rote learning and their inability to think critically, not to mention their undue reliance on converational wisdom and their frequent difficulty in pinpointing the essence of an argument. There are, no doubt, many ways in which these weaknesses can be addressed. Debating is one useful avenue to redress these faults. In debating pupils have to learn to analyse the essence of an argument quickly and efficiently; they have to prepare a case for presentation and deliver it in a confident and clear way. Debate is thus also one way of encouraging pupils general use of language and of helping them overcome their inherent shyness in talking. In this sense debating is a part of the cross-curricular language responsibility of teaching. Before going any further it is necessary to look more closely at the nature of debate and how it differs from other forms of talk.

## The Nature of Debate

Talking takes many forms and debate is but one form of verbal communication. At times talk is highly purposeful and structured whereas at another time it might be loosely structured not looking for any particular conclusion. Table 1 shows a spectrum of types of talk (McClelland, 1983). At one end of the continuum are formal speeches and lectures. These constitute presentations which are often read from a prepared text. They are highly structured with a definite purpose in mind but little opportunity for pupil participation. At the other end is social chatter which is highly interactive but tends to be randomly directed, sometimes switching sideways, at other times switching back to earlier ideas and generally seeking no final conclusion. Debate lies midway in the continuum. It is, in the formal sense, a verbal presentation of two opposing arguments. Through the process of thesis and antithesis, an audience is invited to judge which of the arguments carries the greater conviction. Whilst in the earlier stages of debate, talk occupies the non-structured end of the spectrum (e.g. brainstorming during preparation), it moves rapidly towards the formal end of the spectrum during presentation.

Table 1 Informal spectrum of forms of oral communication (based on McClelland, 1983)

| Mode | Description<br>Largely closed; heavily structured and focused; relatively inflexible; limited participation. |
|---|---|
| Formal speech | \| |
| Lecture | \| |
| Lesson | \| |
| Tutorial | \| |
| Debate | \| |
| Committee | \| |
| Seminar | \| |
| Discussion | \| |
| Brainstorm | \| |
| Conversation | \| |
| Chatter | \| |
| | Open; loosely structured and focused; flexible; spontaneous; wide participation. |

## The prerequisites for successful debating in the classroom

Three prerequisites are needed for the successful use of debate in the classroom, namely:

a suitable topic;
appropriate classroom organisation;
a supportive teacher role.

### *Suitable topic*

The topic must be debatable and within the grasp of the pupils. It must be controversial, involve conclusions that are disputable and contain at least two opposing views that can be logically sustained. Topics which are entirely factual or for which outcomes are a part of accepted wisdom are unlikely to result in a satisfactory debate. The topic must be open ended.

For example a debate which called for a description of the composition of the Hong Kong Legislature would be counterproductive. For success, pupils must believe that what they are arguing for, and indeed the process of arguing itself, is important for them. Only then will the motivational benefits of debate become apparent. It has to be a topic which pupils want to make their own and which appeals. For this reason an element of humour both within the topic to be debated and the way arguments are delivered is often a good thing. It is analogous to what people do in every day life when they seek to convince others of their point of view.

The content of such debates can include topics such as:

(a) "Women are superior to men." (Calls for a degree of good natured humour and little preparation of materials.)

(b) "Controlling pollution is more important that economic growth." (Demands a degree of support and discussion but allows for a little humour at relevant moments).

(c) "Famine in the Sahel is caused by war." (Leaves little room for humour and would have to approached in a sober fashion.)

### *Appropriate classroom organisation*

A concern in using debate as a general classroom strategy is how to involve all the pupils given that only a minority will speak during the actual debate. For this reason, emphasis should be given to the preparatory phase which can beneficially be carried out through group work. Knowles (1983) suggests that groups be kept small as otherwise the social organisation can become strained. A class of 40 might be divided into eight groups of five pupils with four of the groups for the motion and four groups against. Each group can then assess information provided on the topic and work out arguments either for or against the motion as the case may be. These groups can then merge with others from the same side to reach consensus about the argument to use and to decide who will speak. The speakers can then refine their speeches whilst the remainder formulate questions to be given from the floor.

In running debates, a chairperson will be needed and co-chairs can be selected from each of the two main groups. An adjudicator to join the teacher in a panel to judge the winner of the debate can similarly be selected. The teacher may be needed here to see fair play and in particular to offer constructive feedback about the quality of argument. However the aim where possible should be for the teacher to remain in the sidelines of the debate. Only where there is equality among participants is talk likely to be encouraged.

### *A supportive teacher role*

The main role for the teacher is to encourage pupils in their task, and ensure help is available when required. Most of all it is necessary to engender a suitable climate for cooperative learning. The teacher has to carry out a balancing act particularly in the preparatory stages of debating. On the one hand, there may be the need to help with information and the evaluation of arguments but, on the other, the desire to allow pupils to work through the issues for themselves. Only through the latter do pupils learn how to think and take on the task as their own. Thus, it is often useful to give pupils sheets which contain guiding procedural questions. These will direct their analysis of the topic. Similarly, selected readings may need to be provided to support their arguments. The preferred model is the teacher as a facilitator and resource manager, rather than as an information and instruction giver, although the precise balance between the two inevitably varies with the nature of the pupils.

## Practical suggestions for organising debates

Debating is a worthwhile but challenging activity. In this section we will look at suggestions for organising effective debates. However, first it may be helpful to identify likely problems pupils may face and which need to be addressed. Commonly found pupil weaknesses when preparing and conducting debates include:

(a) An inability to grasp the essential question in the debating proposition.

(b) A lack of understanding of the need for effective persuasion and rhetoric in a presentation.

(c) Difficulty in grasping the points made by the opposition and dealing effectively with those points.

(d) An over-reliance on a prepared set of notes and fear of modifying prepared positions in response to an unexpected argument put forward by their opponents.

(e) Problems in quickly pinpointing the essence of an argument during rebuttal and generating a counter argument.

(f) A lack of humour combined with fixed ideas which can sometimes be irrelevant.

(g) Wasting effort in checking obscure details which are often not used and in choosing the inappropriate lines of argument.

It will probably strike the reader that the problems outlined above are those which are also evident in essays, examinations, tests and discussions within subject areas in schools. It is for this reason that, although debating can stand on its own, there is also direct benefit for traditional teaching subjects in schools. Hence for many reasons it is important to carefully prepare for debating sessions in order to minimise deficiencies. These can be looked at under 7 headings:

setting objectives
understanding the motion
selecting speakers
organisation of speakers
preparing speeches
running the debate; and
follow up.

### Setting objectives

If debate is to be a useful classroom tool to develop knowledge and understanding within normal school subject areas, then it is important that pupils know what learning objectives are intended and how these will be tackled, including the nature of the role debate play. For example, in a debate on the legalisation of drugs, pupils need to understand at the outset that the objective of debating the topic is to understand why some people argue for their legalisation whilst others are avidly opposed to their decriminalisation. An alternative, or supplementary, objective might focus on the development of skills; for example, that pupils show practice presentation skills.

### Understanding the motion and identifying the crucial argument

Gunter (1980) makes the important point that it is essential students are first grounded in how to analyse a debating topic quickly and clearly. For example, a motion in Social Studies or Geography might be:

> That environmental considerations are the main causes of the recent increase in disputes about the new airport in Hong Kong.

What is the essential point of debate in this context? Is it the word *increase*? A description of the *environmental considerations* in general? A discussion of the *increase* in disputes about the airport? In fact it is none of these. They all have a part to play, but the real question lies in the crucial words *the main causes*. Unless, and if, this is grasped there can be no meaningful debate. In other words the proposers of the debate must argue that of all the possible causes that of the educational system is predominant. The opposition, on the other hand, can argue with perfect equanimity that the educational cause is *one* of the main causes but there are other explanations of equal validity. Further details of this issue are given in Jacobson (1987).

### Selecting speakers

It is important that the debate is perceived as an activity for all the class and not just for the most able or for the most fluent speakers. It has to be remembered that an additional purpose of using a debate is to increase the competence and confidence of all pupils in talking. For this reason floor speakers, and their preparation, are as important as the main speakers. In formal debating, the time for floor speakers provides an opportunity for the audience to air its views if they so wish. Whilst this is also true in classrooms, there is the additional need to engage the participation of the whole class as only through this will all children learn. Asking spontaneous questions from the floor is not easy and so to start with at least questions pre-prepared questions on a card can be a help to pupils. As skills in debating develop and confidence increases, a more free flowing process with off-the-cuff comments can be allowed. Common sense would suggest therefore that a mixture of abilities is needed in each team of speakers and the teams should be of comparable strengths. The aim should be that, over the span of the school year, every pupil should have the opportunity to be a main speaker.

### Organisation of speakers

There are usually 4 main speakers on each side who speak alternatively plus floor speakers. Each has a slightly different role to play. A well established set of guidelines for speakers is given in Table 2. However these are not hard and fast rules but tend to work quite well in the context of Hong Kong.

Table 2: Organisation of speakers

| | Proposition | Opposition |
|---|---|---|
| Speaker 1<br>(4 minutes) | Establish the motion in a simple, clear logical well rehearsed manner. This argument set by the first speaker for the motion defines all that comes later. | |
| | | Reply to proposition: rebuttal (1-1.5 mins) and case for opposition (2-2.5 mins). |
| Speaker 2<br>(4 minutes) | Rebuttal of opposition concentrating on the primary weakness of opposition case (1-1.5 mins) and development of argument for the motion (2-2.5 mins). | |
| | | Rebuttal of proposition (1-1.5 mins) and development of case against the motion (2-2.5 mins). |
| Speaker 3<br>(4 minutes) | Supports first two speakers: 1 min max for rebuttal; further development of argument which accords with earlier presentations. | |
| | | As for the proposition. |
| Speaker 4<br>(5 minutes) | Rebuttal of opposition (2 mins); recap earlier arguments; finish with a powerful call to support the motion. | |
| | | Rebuttal of opposition (2 mins); recap earlier arguments; finish with powerful call to defeat the motion. |
| Floor Speakers | Questions from floor speakers should be encourged. The debaters must, in all but the most exceptional circumastances, answer relevant questions posed. | |

It is important that speakers understand the basic rules of debate (Table 3).

Table 3: The basic rules of debating

1. Politeness to the opposition.
2. Use of rhetoric in presentation.
3. Listening to the opposing case and grasping the counter arguments quickly.
4. Keeping arguments relevant and simple and avoidance of over complex positions or using facts as a substitute for analysis.
5. Working as a mutually supportive group avoiding contradictory arguments.
6. Developing rebuttals which clearly address the weaknesses of the other side.

### *Preparing speeches and floor questions*

In the initial stages, once speakers are nominated, pupils must realise that spontaneity is essential. Delivering a speech from a set of notes is counter productive. Grounding in the ability to talk convincingly without notes improves confidence and performance. It also encourages pupils to think for themselves and not to rely on other sources. Skills in the art of rhetoric can be developed by various means including listening to recordings of experienced debaters such as those in Legco. Teachers can help pupils understand which styles are effective and why others are not. The thought of debating can be daunting so keep speeches short. Four minutes is often suggested but it can be shorter.

During this period, comments from the teacher need to be positive and the role of the teacher is to help pupils find their weak points for themselves. Pupils need to be helped to find the best way of expressing themselves in the most persuasive ways. If the debate is to be in English, pupils should be encouraged to speak English at all points during preparatory sessions. At first this may seem artificial but it will become easier and improve their fluency of argument.

In a second stage, the four speakers on each side work as a debating group, supported by the other members of the team. It is important each team sees the relationships between speeches and anticipate the likely line taken by the opposition and floor questions.

### *Running the debate*

As noted earlier, the actual debate usually involves eight debaters, four supporting the motion, referred to as the proposition, and four opposing speakers, called the opposition. The first, second, third and fourth speakers present in turn alternating between those for the motion and those against. There is sometimes a break between the third and fourth speaker where questions or reflections are given from speakers in the audience who are called floor speakers.

There will normally be a Chairman or Chairwoman who reads out the rules of the debate and oversees fair play. This role could be taken by the teacher but it could equally well be a pupil. A time keeper is needed to ensure that speakers keep to the time allocated for their speech and adjudicators to judge the debate. The award goes to the team with the most marks and there is usually a best debater award. Scoring, with perhaps marks out of 10, differs from debate to debate but generally it is divided up using the following criteria as a framework.

1. Speaker (1,2,3,4,)
    - Argumentation
    - Rebuttal
    - Criticality
    - Presentation (including humour, spontaneity, originality)
2. Team work
3. Points are deducted for going over the time allocated or over-reliance on prepared speeches delivered from notes.

The award goes to the team with the most marks and there is usually a best debater award.

### *Follow up*

Once the debate has finished, return to the main objectives, namely the knowledge and skills of the subject to be learned. The excitement of competition must not detract from the purpose of using a debate but must be harnessed to draw out the curricular understanding intended. It is also helpful to discuss how well the arguments in the debate were able to generate interest in the subject and to highlight strategies which led to strength of those arguments.

## Conclusion

Debating is a classroom strategy which is particularly useful where the intention is to understand conflicting issues. It is hoped that this paper will help those who wish to introduce debating into the classroom. It is not exhaustive and is intended as a set of guidelines rather than a definitive approach. Those who argue against its introduction on the grounds that debating is a luxury which detracts from the main teaching purpose misunderstand its function. It offers the potential to improve pupil self confidence, criticality, understanding of the nature of questions (and the most relevant way of answering), appreciation of balance in counter argument and an improvement in expression and command of language. Perhaps most important of all, if conducted well, pupil enjoyment makes all the effort worthwhile.

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# 柯爾夫教學法初探

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**The Orff Method**

The Orff Method is aimed at promoting creativity through playing musical instruments. The method successfully intergrates singing, instrumental playing, movements, speech and drama in music teaching, enriching music activities, and enhancing children's interest in learning music.

Orff has been considered a great music educator. One of the reasons is that he has designed a lot of instruments which are very practical, easy to play, and elegant in tone quality, and which enable young beginners to achieve harmony and beauty without much difficulty. Orff has also systematically arranged the range of instrumental and vocal programmes which he designed to facilitate teaching and learning.

The Orff Method has been extensively used in music teaching at different levels of education: kindergartens, child-care centres, primary and secondary schools, special schools as well as in speech and music therapy programmes. The Orff followers have further developed the method by integrating it with the Kodaly Method, and have as a result led the Orff Method to enjoy an even higher status in music education.

## 「柯爾夫教學法」簡介

### 一、導論

柯爾夫(Carl Orff)（1895－1982）是德國作曲家，他深受達克羅茲(Emile Jaques-dalcroze, 1865-1950)的影響，重視節奏及律動對音樂教學的幫助，自1920年代漸成為音樂教育的主流之一。《Schulwerk》（柯爾夫教本）是推行柯爾夫教學的重要教材。柯爾夫提出綜合音樂與律動，其次是言語及戲劇等藝術的教學方向，目的在於發展學童以音樂為主的綜合創作潛能。通過創作，他們學習歌唱、做律動、演奏樂器，在節奏及戲劇活動中運用言語，改編樂曲及將創作帶入整個教學活動中，並鼓勵集體合作。

### 二、原理

1. 音樂、律動及言語為兒童表達的媒介

柯爾夫提倡音樂、律動及言語在音樂教育中不可分割，因為當學生在自然環境中表達自己的時候，以上三者都會混合使用。

2. 音樂教育循序漸進

孩子在早年便應接受音樂教育，應以最簡單的觀念及歌曲開始，孩童的名字、熟悉的語句和說話都可以採用在歌唱和音樂朗誦中。

3. 節奏是音樂中最強烈的元素

節奏是言語、律動及音樂的共有元素，亦是人的活動中最原始及自然的一環，也是學生最易掌握的音樂元素，因此節奏是音樂學習的起點。

4. 創作是教學的核心

學生通過主動參與及創作來學習音樂，任何音樂活動，包括說話、歌唱、律動、樂器及戲劇等都需經過創作、改編和模擬來探討及學習音樂。

### 三、教材特色

教材主要是《柯爾夫教本》(Schulwerk)，書中詳列教學步驟、內容及特色，是推行柯爾夫教學法主要的參考資料。

教材（音樂/歌曲選材）的特色包括：

1. 採用五聲音階(pentatonic mode)；
2. 採用頑固低音(ostinato)形式；
3. 有豐富民族色彩，採用民歌；
4. 在樂曲中抽取動機作前奏及伴奏；
5. 運用柯爾夫選定的樂器(Orff Instruments)；

6. 把兒童的叫聲、說話、朗誦及生活體驗混合在音樂教學中；
7. 常用「下行小三度音程」，及「五聲調性」，特別是在早期的音樂教程中；及
8. 由簡單節奏開始，採用循序漸進式的編排。

## 四、教學活動

1. 言語教學

言語 (speech) 教學是音樂教學重要的起步，從字、詞而逐步發展至詩歌及短文，同時配上律動（拍手、踏腳等）及樂器。素材包括兒童的叫聲、名字、詩句、作文、童謠、童話及其他兒童文學作品（短文或文章片段）等。

教學程序舉例：

I. 創作主題，如學生名字、學生創作的短句——都是學生熟悉的題材；
II. 把詞語配上節奏；
III. 創作旋律／樂曲（視學生程度而釐訂創作的深度）；
IV. 配上律動；
V. 練習；和
VI. 演奏。

言語教學基本上可以教導學生認識音樂的元素（如速度、拍子、節奏、重音、高低、音量、音色等）、曲式（如一部、二部、三部、輪唱、迴旋曲式等）和表達（表情、斷音、連音、樂句、對比等）。言語教學最後帶出歌唱教學。

2. 歌唱教學

歌唱教學由言語教學開始，當學童在朗誦的時候會學到抑揚頓挫，教師便領學童進入歌唱的階段。早期的歌唱訓練重點包括：

I. 兒童呼喊練習，如叫、喊等；
II. 唱同班學生的名字；
III. 學生彼此呼應和對答的唱詠練習；
IV. 學生模仿教師唱歌曲的句子；
V. 學生用歌曲來對話；
VI. 學生將他們即興的創作（如說話、叫聲、朗誦、歌曲）配樂及伴奏；
VII. 跟隨旋律配上說話、朗誦及拍節奏練習；
VIII. 歌曲最先採用「下行小三度」及「五聲調性」(pentatonic mode)，次序如下：
sol-mi（下行小三度）
la-sol-mi
la-sol-mi-re
la-sol-mi-re-do（五聲音階）
fa
ti

3. 律動

律動從兒童自然而不須訓練的動作開始，如走、跳、轉，是一項充滿歡樂及享受的活動。教師鼓勵學生在音樂下無意識、隨意地做動作或擺動身體，學生不需要受音樂的節奏旋律等因素的限制，自由想像和發揮該動作。學生可以選其中動作作為唱詠、朗誦或樂器演奏的律動部分。

「柯爾夫教材」的律動從達哥爾律動 (Eurhythmics) 演變出來，但柯爾夫並不將律動成為學習音樂的核心，他將律動成為一項獨立的教程，以發展兒童活動的能力及空間感。

4. 即興創作 (improvisation)

柯爾夫認為音樂教育的首要目的是發展學童的創作能力，教師不要求學生有偉大的創作，而只要求學生在他們的能力及程度內創作及改編音樂。

創作或改編的活動包括：

I. 探討聲音、言辭、旋律、歌曲、動作、及樂器；
II. 創作節奏、旋律，並以此為伴奏、前奏或終結的音樂部份；和
III. 創作整首樂曲。

創作的特色包括：

IV. 從樂曲中抽取動機作編奏、創作的用途；
V. 動機主題重覆；
VI. 採用五聲調性的樂曲，使和聲容易和諧；
VII. 不著重創作的質素；及
VIII. 歌曲先用單音，然後用三度和音，繼而用六度和音進行，旋律大多在最高音部。

5. 樂器教學

柯爾夫採用以下樂器系列來進行樂器教學：

I. 高音 (soprano)、中音 (alto) 及低音 (bass) 木琴 (xylophone)；
II. 高音及中音鋼片琴 (glockenspiel)；
III. 高音、中音及低音鐵片琴 (metallophone)；
IV. 古大提琴 (viola da gamba)、魯特琴 (lute) 或大提琴 (cello)、結他 (guitar) 及木笛 (re-

corder）可以用來代替或補充敲擊樂器之不足；

V. 鼓、銅鑼、響木、刮瓜及三角鈴在合奏中用來加強節奏感；和

VI. 鋼琴不用來伴奏歌唱，但卻常在合唱中用在樂器合奏中當敲擊樂器使用

柯爾夫樂器系列是柯爾夫教學法的一個特色，這些樂器具以下特性：

I. 容易彈奏，適合初學者和小學生；

II. 音色獨特，節奏明朗；

III. 不用的音條可取去，只留需要的彈奏；和

IV. 容易單憑記憶來演奏

柯爾夫樂器能演奏節奏及旋律，創作及改編音樂，伴奏及合奏等，柯爾夫樂器系列已被廣泛使用作樂器教學

## 「柯爾夫教學」活動編排原則

柯爾夫設計的音樂活動以德國兒童為對象，他的活動被其他國家採用時，都難免要因著文化和語言不同而加以修訂，下文由筆者編排的活動也無可避免要做類似工夫。再者，下文的活動也用來教導弱能兒童（包括弱智、自閉、失聰、失明、言語障礙、身體弱能等），需要修訂的就更多，現簡述如下：

### 一、言語

I. 句子結構以語文結構為主，輔以廣東話字彙，使句子較口語化，又保持語句的法則；

II. 以半拍、一拍及兩拍的節奏為主，以配合廣東話的節奏，成為初學音樂的孩子一個初學拍子的活動，以改善孩子的說話節奏；

III. 咬字與音配合，促進孩子掌握說話的音調；與

IV. 運用高音和低音的樂器來分別伴奏說話的高、低音調，以改進孩子的語調

### 二、歌唱

I. 選曲有教育意義，增進學生的身心發展；

II. 歌詞與音樂在音調和節奏上配合，增強他們的言語發展；與

III. 歌曲與律動、樂器配合，使學生容易掌握樂曲的內容和唱歌的技巧

### 三、朗誦

為了增進學生對誦文的認識和朗誦的技巧與興趣，筆者在設計活動時作了下列安排：

I. 配樂配合文字的音調、節奏及氣氛；

II. 朗誦加上律動、動作和手勢的配合或造型編排；與

III. 內容簡介音樂、闡釋詞彙或訓練記憶

### 四、器樂學習

I. 活動盡量採用了本港容易購買得到的樂器，如（一）高、中、低音木琴；（二）高、中音鋼片琴；（三）高、中、低音鐵片琴；（四）鐘音條；（五）低音鼓；（六）銅鑼；（七）響木；（八）刮瓜；（九）三角鈴；（十）串鈴；及（十一）響板

II. 配樂運用了「固定記譜法」，幼小的學生也容易掌握，令他們比較容易識譜和演奏；與

III. 配樂與歌詞、誦文和說話的內容、節奏、音調和感情配合，相輔相成

### 五、律動

I. 律動配合言語、朗誦、歌唱、聆聽等活動來增進學生的認知、記憶、溝通和社交能力，並穩定情緒；

II. 律動的動作較細，又佔較小活動空間，在面積較細的課室中也可以進行；與

III. 律動編排較簡單，學生依照規則進行，使學生容易保持良好的秩序，更不會因碰撞、拉扯、搶奪等情況而發生意外

### 六、創作

下文的活動原則上都是由老師引導學生，通過即興創作來設計出來。老師應事前做一些準備工夫，如訂定主題及內容、預備樂器、設計問題、準備圖片、實物或道具等，但最關鍵的時刻還是在教學過程中如何引導學生，老師就要對學生的能力、活動的內容及音樂的知識都要有深刻的認識

### 七、聆聽

聆聽在活動中有以下的作用：

I. 增強聲音、符號及動作的記憶；

ii. 與觀眾一起做來增進孩子在音樂上、語言、動作的認知能力；

iii. 聆聽並非一項獨立的活動，而是結合在說話、朗誦、唱歌、律動、樂器學習、創作、話劇、表演等活動中，使聆聽成為一個較活的課題，既能增加學生的興趣，又使聆聽有一個明確的目的。

## 《柯爾夫教學活動簡介》

### 導言

《柯爾夫教本》(Orff Schulwerk) 是實行柯爾夫教學法的最佳參考資料。柯爾夫乃德國人，他設計了《柯爾夫教本》，以德國學生為對象，在語言及文化上與本港學生略有出入，因此下文的柯爾夫教學活動只以《柯爾夫教本》為藍本，活動內容則由筆者編訂。下列活動皆由筆者實踐過，效果良好，特向讀者介紹。

### 教學活動

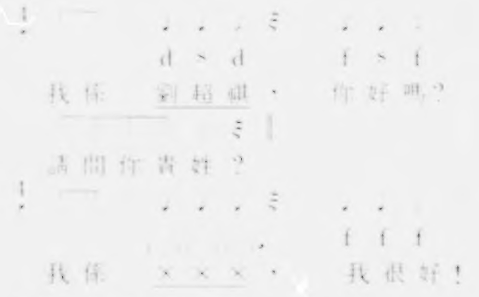
練習一《名字音歌》

歌唱教學從語言開始，名字是彼此呼喚最基本的說話，亦是音樂教學的第一步。

例：　　請問貴姓？
我名叫　　我是
你好嗎？　　我很好！

教師帶領學生用說話認識對方，然後將名字配上旋律，教導學生用歌唱形式打招呼。

例：



練習二《樂器探索》

樂器是柯爾夫教學常用的工具，樂器可以包括：

1. 高質樂器 (quality instrument)，指音樂專業團體在表演時所用的優質樂器；
2. 自製樂器 (handmade instruments)；
3. 玩具樂器 (toy instruments)；
4. 節奏樂器 (rhythm instruments)，如鼓、三角鈴、搖鈴、響木等無音調的樂器；
5. 旋律樂器 (melodic instruments)，如鐘片琴 (glockenpiel)、鐵片琴 (metallophone)、木琴 (xylophone) 等；與
6. 柯爾夫樂器 (Orff Instruments)，如高、中、低音木琴，高、中音鐵片琴、高、中、低音鐘片琴、結他、木笛、鼓、銅鑼、響木、刮瓜及三角鈴。

在器樂教學中，老師引導學生：

1. 用不同方法敲打樂器；
2. 探討樂器的音色；
3. 一齊敲打樂器來製造不同效果；及
4. 感覺敲打樂器時發出的震盪。

身體也是樂器之一，老師應引導學生：

1. 探討不同身體部分會發出不同音色和音量；
2. 敲擊身體部分發出節奏；與
3. 一同敲擊身體部分來演奏音樂。

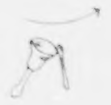
在樂器探討中，教師引導學生發現聲音的大小、長短、高低和音色等音樂性質。

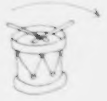
樂器練習可以與下列活動結合使用：

### 一、說話

老師可以引導學生說一些短說話或一些短句子，然後老師從中選擇一兩句教導學生誦讀，再配上樂器，配樂可以跟句子的節奏和音韻來配。

例：今天天氣好嗎？　　今天天氣很好





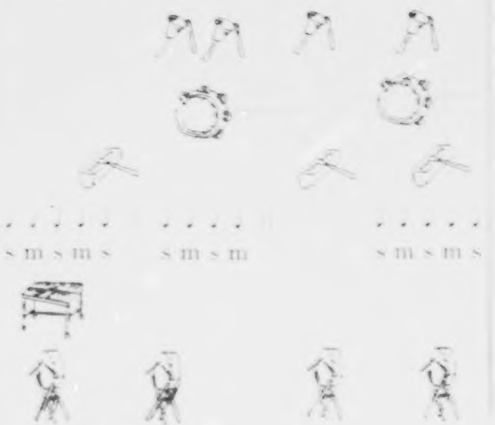
### 二、朗誦

如學生的程度較高，老師可以教導學生創作短文或短詩，然後教導學生朗誦，當學生掌握了內容，老師可以引導學生配樂，以下是一篇筆者帶領學生創作的「音樂詩」，它是用圖象的形式將樂譜記下。

例：

小星星

天上小星星——是閃亮的眼睛，多得數不清

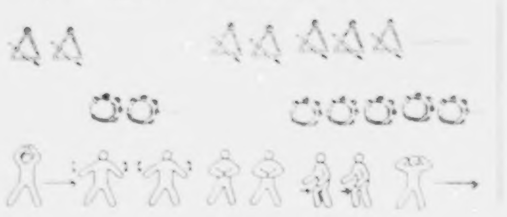

s m s m s
s m s m
s m s m s

## 三、動作詩

器樂教學除了可以與說話、文章或詩歌配合之外，還可以配合律動教學，以下是一篇筆者帶領學生創作性的活動片語，集合了語言、樂器及律動教學的綜合音樂活動

例：

三角、 搖鈴、 奏奏音樂聽聽聲



練習三(律動)

在律動中，學生通過自然的、自發的身體動作來感受音樂，是一種「有機體的舞蹈形式」(organic dance form)，充滿生命力，是創意及獨特的表現

律動教學活動計有：

1. 跟語言配合：

| | |
|---|---|
| 例：大聲 | 配上大聲鼓聲 |
| 大動作 | 將身體大字形張開 |
| 小聲 | 配上輕聲鼓聲 |
| 小動作 | 將身體縮小 |

2. 與聆聽配合

例：I. 一位學生站立在課室中央敲擊銅鑼，其餘學生課室隨意走動；

II. 銅鑼敲得越急促，學生的走動越快，相反則越慢；和

III. 銅鑼停止敲動，則學生停止走動

3. 跟命令進行

例：一位學生（講指令）：拿起三角鈴敲三下，然後跳到椅前，將三角鈴放在搖鼓上面

另一位（或多位）學生：依照指示做

練習四(口部練習)

此部分的練習試圖發展學生口部練習及發聲，活動包括吹、呼吸、叫、說話等訓練，活動介紹如下：

1. 呼吸練習

例：《吹羽毛》教師彈奏一個音，維持一段時間，學生吹羽毛（或蠟燭、氣球），維持吹氣直至音停止

2. 模仿活動(echo call response activity)

例：《傳口令遊戲》

I. 同學排隊，第一位同學向第二位同學輕聲說出命令，如「敲三下鼓」；

II. 第二位同學向下一位同學輕聲傳遞這個訊息；

III. 最後一位同學跟聽到的指示做

3. 聲音探討

說話的聲音與意思有著密切的關係，中文亦一樣，說「高」的時候音調會調高，說「長」的時候節奏會長一些，說「圓」的時候，語氣也希圓一點，老師可以帶領學生做這一方面的探討，老師可更進一步引導學生用樂器或其他發聲的物件表達，以下是由筆者帶領學生探討言語與語意的一個例子：

例：

語意詩
說話的奇妙，我可以
使我的聲音大，
使我的聲音小；
使我的聲音高↑，
使我的聲音低；
使我的聲音長，
使我的聲音短；
使我的聲音快，
使我的聲音慢；
使我的聲音圓，

使我的聲音直、　；
使我的聲音高、　；
使我的聲音共　；
使我的聲音笑、　；
使我的聲音帶　；
說話真、真奇妙　！

練習五（情緒探討）

音樂能發展人的情緒，平衡身心發展，因此，在此方面的音樂活動不可或缺

音樂活動介紹如下：

1. 音樂表達對比的情緒
例：快樂←→憂愁
I. 學生做出快樂和憂愁的表情；
II. 學生口頭描述快樂與憂愁；
III. 學生詩述快樂與憂愁的經驗；
IV. 學生用聲音表達快樂和憂愁
2. 音樂表達意見
例：是/不是
　對/不對
I. 學生用言語表達
II. 學生用動作表達
III. 學生用表情表達
IV. 學生用音樂表達
3. 啞劇 (Mime)
例：老師播放音樂或帶領學生演奏音樂，然後帶領學生用啞劇形式表達感受

練習六（心理／社交發展）(psycho socio dynamics)

學生的心理及社交發展其實可以在平常的音樂活動中學習得到，如合作、禮讓、相親相愛、體諒等，但一些音樂活動可以設計用來發展他們的心理和社交能力，如：

1. 與樂器對話
例一：一位學生說話，另一位學生用一種樂器對答
例二：一位學生一面演奏，一面說話，另一位學生演奏另一種樂器，一面用說話對答
例三：一位學生奏樂器，第二位學生一起與伴奏樂器說話；第三位學生奏樂器答第一位學生，第四位學生跟樂器用說話向第二位學生回答

2. 歌唱

教師選取有群體意識的歌曲，如《當我們同在一起》、《相親相愛》等相類歌曲

3. 器樂合奏
例一：桌面上放有比人數略少的樂器數目，使學生需要二人或以上共用一個樂器，如三位學生合奏兩個樂器，使他們學習互相遷就、忍讓及合作
例二：放置的樂器比人數多、一樣或略少，學生需在演奏中途更換樂器才能成功地合奏，從而訓練學生待人接物，互相合作的正確態度

## 《柯爾夫教學法》音樂治療活動簡介

### 導言

當要教導弱能兒童音樂的時候，老師或治療師可以運用上述的教學活動，但部分音樂治療師在採用柯爾夫教學法時會混合使用高大宜(Zoltan Kodaly)教學法，因為兩人的音樂教育思想有其共通處，他們都認為：

1. 音樂是愉快的，可享受的活動；
2. 每人都應參與音樂活動；
3. 人可以通過音樂來溝通；
4. 採用五聲音階的歌曲、兒歌、童謠為教材；及
5. 活動採取小組方式進行

### 教學活動

以下活動參考了 Cecilia H. Schulberg（1981）而編訂

1. 身體模仿 (Body Echoes, by Grenoble, 1977)
I. 活動目的：
　a. 增強學員感知——肌肉協調 (perceptual-motor coordination)；
　b. 發展學員對節奏的醒覺性；
　c. 鼓勵學員身體各部分的使用及協調；
　d. 提供非語言性的溝通媒介；
　e. 通過集體交往和合作來提高社交技巧；
　f. 使欠缺語言的學員能充分參與活動；及
　g. 提供學員享受音樂的機會
II. 活動內容：

學員圍圈坐，治療師（教師）坐在學員前

面，指示他們跟自己做動作，治療師用手穩定，緩慢地拍四個一拍，然後學員模仿治療師，動作可擴展到身體不同部分，如拍肚、拍手指、踏腳等，節奏漸複雜，這個活動可以配上節奏樂器或歌曲，視乎學員的能力而定

III. 活動規則：

無特定規則，在活動中，小組可自行釐訂

IV. 學員人數：

一人或以上

V. 學員角色：

與其他學員一起模仿及重複節奏活動，可能的話可帶領其他學員做節奏活動

VI. 結果：

學員在參與活動中享受歡樂

VII. 學員應有知識及技能：

- a. 認知：節奏及感知醒覺與創作力；
- b. 感官動作 (sensory-motor)：身體各部分有感知——肌肉協調 (perceptual-motor coordination)；
- c. 情感：學員間彼此能有節奏地合作的能力

VIII. 交往形式：

個別之間、集體及小組之間

IX. 環境設計：

舒適、能足夠容納小組的地方

X. 器材：

節奏樂器或加上其他樂器

2. 柯爾夫迴旋曲 (Orff Rondos, by Bitcon, 1976

I. 活動目的：

- a. 通過小組交往及合作來增進學員的社交技能；
- b. 發展學員對節奏感的醒覺；
- c. 提高學員的感知——肌肉協調；
- d. 提供給學員非語言的溝通媒介；
- e. 發揮學員之想像及創造力；
- f. 提供給欠缺語言溝通能力的學員一個充分參與的機會；
- g. 訓練注意力及工作能力 (on-task behaviour)；與
- h. 使學員在容易、成功的經驗中獲得享受的經驗

II. 活動內容：

柯爾夫教學法著重語言的節奏及律動，選五聲音階的歌曲，和聲容易配合，樂器則用高品質的柯爾夫樂器，迴旋曲是《柯爾夫教本》中普遍被採用的曲式之一，學員有機會重複主題（A），並需要學員有獨立的反應（反應B、反應C、反應D等），形成迴旋曲式A：B：A：C：A：D：A，柯爾夫迴旋曲同時要唱誦 (sing-song chants)，並輔以身體節奏，治療師可以將此活動擴展到演奏柯爾夫樂器

III. 活動規則：

由小組釐訂

IV. 學員人數：

一人或以上

V. 學員角色：

學員有創意地演奏迴旋曲

VI. 結果：

學員愉快地參與活動

VII. 學員應有知識及技能：

- a. 認知：聽覺——視覺接收、節奏感、想像力及創造力；
- b. 感官——動作：認知——肌肉協調；與
- c. 情感：學員間彼此合作的能力

VIII. 交往形式：

個別之間、集體及小組之間

IX. 環境設計：

舒適、足夠容納學員的空間

X. 器材：

柯爾夫樂器

3. 唱名及節奏 (Solfege and Rhythm, by Wheeler & Raebeck, 1972

I. 活動目的：

- a. 發展學員的內在聽覺 (inner hearing) 及節奏、音高感覺；
- b. 增强感知——肌肉協調；
- c. 提高注意力及工作能力；
- d. 通過小組交往及合作來提高社交技巧；
- e. 提供給欠缺語言溝通能力的學員一個充分參與的機會；和
- f. 使學員在容易、成功的經驗中獲得享受的經驗

II. 活動內容：

高大宜教學法著重歌唱教學，通過唱名、做手號來學習音高，使學員能更準確地掌握音高。節奏從律動中學習，加上讀節奏 (ta, ti, ti-ri 等) 來建立節奏感，學員通過模仿來學習，節奏頑現句 (rhythmic ostinati)、卡農曲式 (Canon) 等形式可以引入活動中增加活動的興趣及挑戰性

III．活動規則：

學員跟從領袖的指示

IV．參與人數：

一人或以上

V．學員角色：

a．音準與手號正確地配合；

b．正確地演出節奏句；及

c．準確地唱名及唱音

VI．結果：

a．發展歌唱及節奏技巧；和

b．從活動過程中獲得樂趣

VII．學員應有的知識及技能：

a．認知：節奏及音準接收；

b．感官動作：感知——肌肉協調；和

c．情感：彼此合作的能力

VIII．交往形式：

個別之間、集體及小組之間

IX．環境設計：

舒適、足夠容納學員的地方

X．器材：

a．黑板及粉筆；

b．音管 (a pitch pipe)

c．發出不同節奏的節奏盒 (rhythm box

XI．節奏範例：

a．一拍

符號：

讀節奏：拍 拍 拍 拍

拍手：拍 拍 拍 拍

b．半拍 ♪

符號：

讀節奏：半 拍 半 拍

拍手：半 拍 半 拍

c．二拍 d

符號：d d

讀節奏：二拍 二拍

律動：拍手 合手向上搖 一下 拍手 合手向上搖 一下

## 總結

柯爾夫教學法今已廣泛被多國採用，他成功地將以敲擊樂為主的樂器、言語、歌唱、律動成功地混合在兒童音樂教學中，而他所提倡的 Orff Instuments 在樂器教學中已成為不可或缺的樂器

再者，以上活動參考《柯爾夫教本》而編訂，教師可根據上述資料，自行設計一些合乎學生進度的活動，促進學生及心身的發展

至於音樂治療方面，柯爾夫教學法很多時被教育工作者及音樂治療師，與高大宜教學法混合使用，達到教學及治療功用，上文活動乃採用了高大宜的歌唱及節奏活動與柯爾夫的律動及器樂活動，將音樂教學同時達到治療作用

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# 弱能兒童模仿正常兒童之遊戲行爲——兩種教學方法評估

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[illegible]

## Teaching Retarded Preschoolers to Imitate the Free-play Behaviour of Nonretarded Classmates: Effects of Two Teaching Methods Used in Two Integrated Settings

This is an exploratory study to examine the effects of two commonly used training procedures (individual training and small group training) to increase the retarded pre-schoolers' imitation of their nonretarded classmates' free play behaviour and positive social interaction in an "integrated" setting. The training procedures involved an adult delivering prompts and employing social reinforcement to encourage the retarded children's imitation behaviour and positive social interaction. Results indicated that there was an incrase in the retarded pre-schoolers' peer-imitation behaviour and positive social interaction. It is hoped that the results of the present study can serve as a basis for comparison with future investigations into the most effective teaching methods for retarded pre-schoolers in an integrated setting.

## 前言

香港政府於一九七八年開始推行幼兒園兼收服務，旨在讓弱能兒童能夠多方面與社會接觸，藉着與正常兒童一同學習的環境，促進多方面的交流，發展與人相處之技巧。而另一方面，亦加深正常兒童對缺陷人士的正確認識，培養他們對弱能人士採取積極態度的基礎

目前本港共有超過93間兼收幼兒園，十數間兼收幼稚園，(HKCS, 1990)，輕度弱能兒童期望在正常環境下擴大其模仿正常行爲之機會，學習社會適應性行爲，但就觀察研究所得，此種安排並不一定能達至上述模仿學習之效果(Guralrick, 1976)，就一般「兼收服務」之觀察所得，弱能兒童與正常兒童之間之來往，往往只限於觀望性質，甚或不相往來，弱能兒童在正常學校中，有被孤立之現象(Allen, Benning & Drammond, 1972)，教導弱能兒童如何在正常環境下，模仿正常兒童之積極社會性行爲，是兼收幼兒園或幼兒園重要之教學工作，但一般使用之教導弱能兒童模仿正常兒童之教學方法，其有效性究竟如何？如何評估及記錄，皆爲本研究探討之

內容

## 教學方法（一）

一般兼收幼兒園中，較常使用教導弱能兒童模仿正常兒童行爲的一種方法，是在小組自由遊戲時間內，令弱能兒童觀察正常兒童之遊戲，並鼓勵弱能兒童模仿其積極之社交行爲，希望藉此能提高弱能兒童之社交能力，減少消極或負面之行爲，逐漸發展其社交技能

本研究嘗試用上述之教學方法，在本港其中一間兼收聾童之幼稚園中實施評估，此教學法對個別聾童之社交行爲的發展影響

## 教學方法（一）——評估

幼兒園（一）：一間有兼收聾童服務之幼稚園（10%爲嚴重失聽之聾童）

對像：三位四至五歲極度嚴重失聽（即平均90分貝以上失聽）之聾童，（二男一女）（被觀察之兒童）

五位四至五歲正常兒童，三男二女

兩位成人（包括訓練教師及觀察員）

場地：自由遊戲時間

時間：共計十七分鐘，一天一次，五天連續。
　包括訓練前觀察十分鐘，訓練期間四分鐘，訓練後應用3分鐘。

佈置：8 m×13m大的課室。
　訓練期間及訓練後之應用在該課室開闢4 m×4 m的自由遊戲空間進行。

教材：
1. 一個長方形的桌
2. 兩張椅子
3. 兩塊簡單的拼圖
4. 一盒小建築積木
5. 兩個玩具電話
6. 一個玩具烏龜
7. 一個玩具洗碗槽有碟子
8. 幾套衣服
9. 一架鋼琴
10. 幾本故事書

程序：

　由觀察員記錄所有在訓練前、訓練期間及訓練後的資料，用時間抽樣 (time-sampling) 的方法，記錄弱能兒童之模仿，及和普通兒童來往的次數。兒童反應的方式/行為，有下列數種：

1. 朋輩模仿 (peer-imitation)：
　在一個兒童做出某一個動作，在十秒鐘之內另一個兒童觀察到而做出相似的反應動作，但並不包括發聲模仿。
2. 社交來往 (social interaction)，包括下列數種：

A. 發聲 (vocalizing)——所有當一個兒童對住另一位兒童時所發出的聲音或語言，或是不對住另一位兒童但有通話的內容，例如：叫喊當時的名字，或是"喂！你……"等，和有一些招呼動作，例如：招手，指住，清楚顯示有對另一兒童說話或表達的意向。

B. 社交動作/姿勢 (social gesture)——所有對住另一兒童的動作 (motor responses)，包括招手、伸長手臂、手勢等，或兒童拉另一兒童過來，或共玩一件玩具而令到身體有接觸包括：偶而身體的接觸。如果一個兒童做出某些動作並不能招致另一兒童的反應不能叫做社交姿勢。

C. 分享 (sharing)——一位兒童給得供或接受某一物件自另一位兒童；或共用某件物件，兩個兒童全步要一隻手觸到那物件，並非是保留物件——不玩有許多配件的玩具，例如：着衣服——把上、落、玩某件玩具。

## 實驗設計

1. **訓練前**：訓練前的人數包括三位被觀察之弱能兒童，五位普通被模仿的兒童，三位成人，觀察期間為十分鐘，觀察集中於每次看一位被觀察的弱能兒童，輪流觀察，十秒鐘看一次，兒童 A→B→C……，成人與兒童不做任何主動來往，若兒童主動與其來往，盡快結束來往，期間對兒童不提供任何訓練。
2. **訓練期間**（一）：情況與訓練前一致，除了一位訓練教師進入自由遊戲之活動區，對被觀察兒童（一）進行四分鐘訓練，當中一位被觀察之弱能兒童 (subject 1) 在被模仿之普通兒童玩耍以自由遊戲進行相似的遊戲時，如果有需要的話，訓練教師可以幫助該弱能兒童靠近某些普通兒童，然後進行下列指示：

"看！他/她正在做甚麼？"（訓練者指住被模仿的普通兒童）

"你都這樣做啦！"

如果該弱能兒童在五秒鐘之內模仿該朋輩兒童，就讚賞他/她

"好叻！"或者是"好呀！你做到他/她做的事！"和積極的身體接觸，例如：拍或擁抱該弱能兒童

如果該兒童沒有模仿，訓練者運用幫手的方法 (physically prompt) 做到該模仿的行為，然後讚賞。訓練期間（一）對其他兩位被觀察之弱能兒童不進行任何訓練，對該被訓練之弱能兒童，至少提供一次幫手去到某種模仿行為，同時記錄。

**訓練期間**（二），訓練第二位被觀察兒童，同時記錄。

**訓練期間**（三），訓練第三被觀察之弱能兒童，記錄者同時記錄。

3. 訓練後之應用期 (generalization period)
　每一次訓練期間過後，該訓練教師立刻離開

四分鐘訓練，離開三分鐘，不讓兒童看到，記錄者記錄教師離開後該弱能兒童之行為表現，觀察二分鐘。

## 結果

表一：幼兒園（一）

教學方法（一）（兒童1）

| [illegible] | [illegible] | | | | | [illegible] | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |

在表一所示，該兒童為一極度嚴重失聰的四歲男童，在為[illegible]日之明顯模仿目之訓練後，該項目大[illegible]，有[illegible]目的進步，但以訓練期前後做比較，在[illegible]明顯模仿訓練後，其它項目例如：發聲、[illegible]之動作和分享比訓練前表現較多。

表二：幼兒園（一）

教學方法（一）（兒童2）

| [illegible] | [illegible] | | | | | [illegible] | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |

在表二所示，該兒童也為一極度嚴重失聰之四歲半男童，其表現與表一的兒童相似。

表三：幼兒園（一）

教學方法（一）（兒童3）

| [illegible] | [illegible] | | | | | [illegible] | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |

上述兒童為一極度嚴重失聰之五歲女孩，其表現與上列兩兒童相似。

## 教學方法（二）

另外在一般兼收幼稚園中，也都會經常使用個別教學法，即是一位教師教導一位弱能兒童的情況下，教導弱能兒童模仿一位正常兒童的遊戲行為，藉此提高弱能兒童的正常或積極性的社交行為，減少其問題行為或消極的社交行為技巧，本研究亦都嘗試用此個別教學的形式，在本港一間兼收輕度弱智兒童的幼兒園中施行且評估，試了解此個別教學法對個別輕度弱智兒童的影響。

### 教學方法（二）——評估

實驗設計如下：

幼兒園（二）：一間兼收弱智兒童之幼兒園（6％為輕度弱智兒童（IQ 50至70之間））

對象：三位被觀察之四至五歲輕度弱智兒童，一位被模仿之四至五歲普通兒童，一位訓練教師。

場地：個別弱能兒童上課時間

時間：約二十分鐘

佈置：在12.3m×9.2m課室內

間隔1.8m×2m的房間進行訓練期及訓練後之活動

教材：書、黏土、球、煮飯仔用具、木鐘、電話、項鍊、成人衣服、鏡、小車輛、公仔、樂器等

程序：

在訓練期間，所有玩具需收藏在箱中，在適當的活動時，一次拿出一件，但在訓練前及後就擺列出所有教材。

兩位觀察者用時間抽樣之方法，記錄下列行為：

A. 積極之社交來往 (positive social interaction)：包括手之接觸，擁抱，親吻，招手，和/或任何合作之反應，包括分享玩具或教材，也都包括對一位兒童發聲或語言，不包括大叫，大喊，哭喊打人等任何消極之行為。

B. 消極之社交來往 (negative social interaction)：包括打人，踢人，用頭撞

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人，推人，搶人玩具，破壞別人做好的東西，哭喊，叫罵等任何消極來往之行爲。

C. 模仿另外一位兒童 (imitation of another child)：在一位正常兒童做出某一動作五秒鐘之內，被另一位弱能兒童觀察到而做出相類似的行爲。

## 實驗設計

1. **訓練前**：包括一位被觀察之弱智兒童，一位被模仿之普通兒童，一位訓練教師，該教師在課室角落看書，不主動與兒童來往，若兒童找他/她，也盡快終止來往，不進行任何訓練，過程十分鐘，記錄該位弱智兒童之行爲。
2. **訓練期間**：訓練教師與上述兒童進入訓練區，對該被觀察之弱智兒童進行訓練，每一次在箱中拿出二件相似教材，鼓勵弱智兒童模仿普通兒童，訓練方法包括手勢，直接指導及唱歌（例如："你看他在做甚麼？你也做吧"），動作上的幫助 (physical prompts)，然後讚賞其模仿行爲，如果該弱智兒童五秒鐘之內不做模仿行爲，則需上述幫手，共教導四分鐘，不記錄普通兒童之行爲。訓練後，另二位弱智兒童進入訓練區，同樣進行訓練。
3. **訓練後**：如上述，每一次訓練後，都立刻記錄該被訓練之弱能兒童之表現。記錄三分鐘該弱能兒童之表現。

## 結果：

表四：幼兒園（二）

教學方法（二）（兒童1）

| 出現次數 | 基線比較 | | | | 訓練期內比較 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 時間 | 第一日 | 第二日 | 第三日 | 第四日 | 訓練前 | 訓練中 | 訓練後 |
| 積極的社交來往 | [illegible] | [illegible] | 11 | 10 | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| 消極的社交來往 | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| 模仿普通兒童 | [illegible] | 11 | 11 | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |

表五：幼兒園（二）

教學方法（二）（兒童2）

| 出現次數 | 基線比較 | | | | 訓練期內比較 | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 時間 | 第一日 | 第二日 | 第三日 | 第四日 | 訓練前 | 訓練中 | 訓練後 |
| 積極的社交來往 | 1 | [illegible] | 3 | 2 | [illegible] | [illegible] | 11 |
| 消極的社交來往 | 2 | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] | [illegible] |
| 模仿普通兒童 | 1 | [illegible] | 1 | 11 | [illegible] | 1 | [illegible] |

上述兩表格所觀察之兒童爲兩位四至五歲輕度弱智兒童（IQ 在50至70之間）。

經過訓練後，積極的社交來往和模仿普通兒童之行爲有增加之趨勢，而消極的社交行爲則有減少，以訓練期前後作比較，積極的社交來往與模仿其它兒童在訓練中與訓練後有個別明顯的增加。

## 結論

據一般研究及觀察所示，若常一般使用在兼收幼兒園中，教導弱能兒童「朋輩模仿」之教學方法，並未在香港的兼收幼兒園或幼稚園中試行評估，本研究嘗試用兩種不同教導弱能兒童「朋輩模仿」的方法，分別在兩間兼收幼稚園試行，希望了解該教學法對個別弱能兒童社交表現之影響。但由於本研究爲一個有限樣本的探索性研究，第一種小組自由遊戲時間內，教導弱能兒童「朋輩模仿」之方法，僅能看到對三位極度嚴重失聰兒童的影響，對此三位兒童來說，經過五日之「朋輩模仿」訓練後，該項的表現，有逐日的進步，但以訓練期前後作比較，經過「朋輩模仿」訓練後，其它項目，例如：發聲，社交動作和分享則比訓練前表現較差。或者此方面都可以帶出教師若專注於某種行爲方面的訓練，也卻影響到兒童在此行爲的表現會較佳，但其它重要之社交行爲方面，是否會因此容易被教師或兒童疏忽乎？此方面是值得教育工作者留意的。

另外，第二種用個別教導弱能兒童「朋輩模仿」之方法，只在一間兼收輕度弱智兒童的幼兒園中試行評估，對該兩位輕度弱智兒童來說，積極的社交來往和模仿正常兒童的行爲有增加之趨勢，而消極的社交行爲則有明顯減少，也都或者可帶出，弱智兒童的積極社交行爲和朋輩模仿，是可以經過教師的教導，達到較「正常化」的目的。

本研究最大的限制，是用兩種不同的教學

法・在兩間性質不同的兼收幼兒園實施・兒童弱能的性質也不相同・且無對照組的設立・故兩種教學法在此研究中並無對比的可能性・或者在將來的研究中・可比對不同的教學方法對不同性質的弱能兒童在兼收的環境下對兒童社交發展的影響・令到香港的兼收幼兒園因有更多有系統的教學評估・更加達到「兼收」的目的

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# Factors Influencing the Achievement of Teaching Objectives among Primary and Secondary School Physical Educators in Hong Kong

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Most teacher educators assume that the achievement of teaching objectives is an indicator of successful teaching. However, factors influencing teaching achievement in physical education have not been clearly identified. This study was carried out to investigate factors influencing the achievement of teaching objectives among local primary and secondary school physical educators. A total of 278 subjects were surveyed. Data were obtained from an 80-item response questionnaire developed by the investigator. The major results of the study include: (a) Management skills were found to be the only factor accounting for the difference in the achievement of teaching objectives between novice and veteran physical educators; (b) Regardless of teaching experience and school levels, inadequate sports facilities and school support were considered by physical educators to be the greatest obstacles to achieving their teaching objectives.

If certain adjustments are made in the curriculum of local primary and secondary schools as well as teacher preparation programmes, the quality of teaching and student's learning could be improved to a large extent. Fitness programmes which require little equipment should be incorporated into the primary and secondary curricula. In physical education teacher preparation, emphasis should be put on class management skills.

### 影響香港體育教學的因素

[illegible]

## Introduction

During the past two decades, most of the primary and secondary school physical educators graduated from the local teachers' colleges after completing a two-year or three-year certificate programme. However, as physical education has now become an academic subject in the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination (HKCEE) for secondary schools, it was felt that such certificate course could hardly provide adequate knowledge for teachers to meet the changes. In a recent study, the Hong Kong Sports Development Board reported that 97% of the total respondents urged for further professional training whilst less than half of the teachers felt competent to teach physical education at the upper secondary level (Wells, 1991). Therefore, in order to satisfy the increasing demands for better training, a number of undergraduate professional preparation programmes in physical education have been set up over the past few years.

In spite of many efforts to upgrade the local physical education profession, there is no guarantee that our colleagues can fully achieve their teaching objectives. Teaching is a complex activity. Teachers design and redesign experiences for their students based on their pedagogic objectives and their knowledge of the learner, the lesson content, and the teaching-learning process itself. A wide body of literature has indicated that it is important for teachers to choose instructional processes appropriate to their objectives. To do this, teachers must (a) have a clear idea of what they want to do; (b) understand the instructional environment in which they will be working, and (c) have the skills necessary, given their environment, to achieve their objectives (Rink, 1985; Jewett & Bain, 1985; Goldberger & Moyer, 1982). After the curriculum goals and objectives have been established, the most significant question related to this subject is: "what element(s) might have influenced the achievement of these objectives". Indeed, any factor involved in the teaching-learning process could be a possible answer. Harrison and Blakemore (1989) identified four significant elements of being a qualified physical education teacher, including knowing the subject, showing interest in the subject, knowing and liking the students and possessing a sense of humour. Other scholars suggested that teaching skills, management and content behaviour, value positions and beliefs in teaching, personal characteristics, expertise and experience are factors contributing to good teaching (Siedentop & Eldar, 1989; Rink, 1985; Placek, 1983).

Although physical education has already become an academic subject in the territories, little local research on teaching effectiveness in physical education has been conducted. Therefore, the investigator expects the outcome of this study to generate three significant impacts on the physical education profession. First, it would raise the awareness of the attainment of teaching objectives in physical education. Second, it would provide concrete ideas, relevant to the local situations, to which policy makers or programme planners could refer in designing pertinent curricula for both potential physical educators and school students. Third, it would stimulate further research in sport pedagogy so that the status of physical education in the Territory can be upgraded.

## Review of Literature

### *Goals and objectives the physical education curriculum*

Educational outcomes are commonly called goals when they refer to broad outcomes, and objectives when they refer to more specific outcomes (Rink, 1985). Bloom (1956) and Krathwohl (1964) are particularly well known for the taxonomies of educational objectives they proposed for use by educational evaluators and curriculum planners. Almost a quarter of a century later, their basic concepts for stating educational objectives lie in three domains. Rink (1985) explained that in physical education, goals and objectives are usually under three interrelated categories depending on the domain of learning that characterizes the particular goal or objectives. Psychomotor outcomes are the unique contribution of physical education to the education of the students. They include motor skill objectives such as teaching fundamental skills (e.g., running, throwing, skipping, rolling) and complex skills (e.g., volleyball serving, basketball lay-up), and enhancing fitness. Cognitive goals and objectives are intellectual and thinking related. They include outcomes relating to knowledge students should have, problem solving and creativity or the transfer of knowledge from one situation to another. The final objective is affective, which focuses on student feelings, attitudes, values, and social behaviour.

Harrison and Blakemore (1989) stated that the goals and objectives of physical education programmes are a result of a step-by-step process of thought that considers (a) the relationship of physical education to the purposes of education, (b) the values of physical education, (c) the needs and interests of students, (d) the nature of the school and its community, and (e) the personal philosophies of the faculty. Annarino et al. (1986), on the other hand, indicated that objectives should be weighted as to their relative value. This weighing is determined by the growth and development stages of the learner, teaching behaviour and styles, teacher competencies, and teacher value. Other criteria can be the uniqueness of the objectives to the goals of general education, the feasibility of measurement, and the degree of objectivity and accuracy in evaluation. A number of research studies indicated that most teachers seem confident of their knowledge and ability to teach toward most teaching goals, but for strategies to remove barriers to the system and strategies to motivate students to make progress (Lawson, 1990; Lambdin & Steinhardt, 1992; Reid, 1983). Therefore, there is an urgent need to conduct research to investigate and resolve teaching constraints.

### *Factors influencing the achievement of teaching objectives*

Research on teacher effectiveness in physical education has provided insights as to how teaching contributes to motor acquisition. Substantial progress has been made by researchers both in education and physical education (Berliner, 1987; Silverman, 1988; Werner & Rink, 1989) toward identifying teaching behaviors important to student learning. However, effective teaching relies on many variables which might vary from one situation to another. Recent literature in education and physical education has shown the importance of declarative and procedural knowledge and how they must combine in order to produce learning, superior performance, and expertise. Works that reflect this by Larkin (1983), Glaser (1984), Rink (1983), Berliner (1985), and many others showed how a teacher's content knowledge has an impact upon the teacher's practice and effectiveness. According to Vickers (1987), physical education appeared to be a field increasingly divided into two bodies — one that pursues the discovery of knowledge for its own sake, the disciplines; the other that applies knowledge in various ways, as professional teachers, exercise leaders, sports managers. The literature on cognition, education, and artificial intelligence now recognizes that skilful professionals combine knowledge of subject matter with the processes of that field. Taking these points into consideration, Vickers (1987) offer three suggestions that may speed communication between the teaching professions and the disciplines. First, those in pedagogical professions should be aware of the literature that shows that competence and expertise in teaching must allow for the interaction between knowledge of the subject matter and the processes/procedures of teaching. Second, those in the disciplinary fields should accept the responsibility for articulating what children in our schools should be taught in their field. Third, the pedagogical and disciplinary fields should combine their efforts to produce a clearer definition of what school physical education is and how it should be taught.

Evertson et al. (1984) designated a set of behaviours as core teaching skills that may be viewed as encap-

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sulating a research-based definition of effective teaching. The core skills identified included: providing maximum learning time, managing and organizing the classroom, utilizing interactive teaching strategies, communicating high expectations, as well as rewarding student performance. However, Kneer (1974) stressed that knowledge and skill are not sufficient attributes for the future teacher. Success and effectiveness will be reflections of individual beliefs, values, and personal characteristics. He further stated that an atmosphere of trust, warmth, freedom, and enthusiasm is essential for meaningful experience to be gained school physical education. Sanford and Everson (1981) studied the management skills of junior high school teachers and concluded that effective managers spent the first day discussing class rules and procedures and assigned some work in which students could experience initial success. They devoted some time each day to presenting, viewing, and discussing rules and acted consistently to stop off-task behaviour.

Physical education instruction is operationally interpreted as a definitive purpose plus an effective process-product achievement. This simplified explanation becomes more complex when the total teaching/learning process, with its multiple interacting elements, is analyzed and the elements are then systematically organized for an effective instructional strategy. In the broadest sense, an appropriate environment for learning to the achievement of the goals does not purely rely on the effectiveness of the strategies or the competence of the teacher. The environment is a product of many factors that may be determined by school boards, principals, administrators, and often circumstances that are beyond the control of the teacher.

## Purpose and Hypotheses

The first purpose of this study was to investigate how much the local physical educators have fulfilled the teaching objectives in their present teaching. The second purpose was to identify factors which influence the achievement of physical education objectives.

The following hypotheses were being tested: (a) there were no significant differences in the mean score for the influencing factors (including subject knowledge, management skill, teaching technique, evaluation skill, personality, value system, personal appearance, principal's support, and sports facilities) between primary and secondary school physical educators; (b) there were no significant differences in the mean score for the influencing factors between teachers with different years of teaching experience; and (c) there were no significant interactions between school level and years of teaching experience in the mean score for the influencing factors.

## Method

### *Subjects*

In this study, 600 subjects were randomly selected from the primary and secondary schools located on Hong Kong Island, in Kowloon and the New Territories. All respondents were full-time physical education teachers either in primary or secondary school. In an effort to eliminate or reduce sampling bias, subjects were randomly selected from 300 primary schools and 300 secondary schools respectively, and respondents participated on a voluntary basis.

### *Instruments*

Due to the shortage of validated questionnaire for this study, data were obtained from an 80-item response questionnaire designed by the investigator, based on information from related research and 30 full-time physical education teachers' opinions about factors influencing the achievement of their teaching objectives.

The questionnaire consists of three parts. Part one of the instrument was designed to obtain demographic information of the participants which included: age, gender, education level, school type, and teaching experience. The second part of the questionnaire was designed to check how many of the respondents had fulfilled the teaching objectives suggested by the Hong Kong Education Department. Part three of the instrument was aimed to investigate what factors might have affected the respondent's achievement of their teaching objectives. Factors used in this study included: (i) Subject Knowledge, (ii) Management Skill, (iii) Teaching Technique, (iv) Evaluation Skill, (v) Personality, (vi) Value System, (vii) Appearance, (viii) School Support, and (ix) Equipment. A 5-point Likert-type scale was used to indicate how many of the factors have influenced the respondents' teaching.

The questionnaire was tested by experts for content validity. Prior to circulating the questionnaire, a pilot test was executed on a group of 40 in-service physical educators to test the reliability of the instrument. All the participants were asked to complete the same questionnaire twice within ten days. The data analysis in the pilot study, which was performed using SPSS programme, indicated that no substantive changes in the content or format was required.

### *Data collection and analysis*

Data collection for this study took place in October 1992. Questionnaires were mailed to 600 schools with a request that they complete the survey and return it to the investigator within two weeks. On the initial mailing of 600 questionnaires, 204 (34% of the sample) were returned. A follow-up procedure yielded an additional 74 questionnaires. As a result of the initial mailing and the follow-up procedure, 278 questionnaires (46% of the sample) were returned, yielding a satisfactory return rate.

The data elicited by the 80-item questionnaire were recorded. Data were analyzed by means of crosstabs and the analysis of variance (ANOVA) technique. To examine the factors influencing the achievement of teaching objectives, a 2x5 ANOVA was employed. Separate analyses were performed on each of the nine factors. In addition, a Duncan Test was used for post-hoc mean comparisons. The alpha level was set at .05 to determine significance.

## Results

A summary of the demographics of the subjects is presented in Table 1. Of the 278 respondents, 49 percent were secondary school teachers, and 51 percent were primary school teachers. Males represented 62 percent of the respondents and females represented 38 percent. In terms of education, 13 percent of the respondents held bachelor's degrees, 83 percent were graduates from the local teachers' colleges, and the remaining 4 percent had finished secondary schools and sat the HKCEE. Overall, 10 percent of the respondents are currently working towards a bachelors degree in education or physical education. With regard to teaching experience of the respondents, the percentages of the groups were: Group 1 (1-3 years) 16%, Group 2 (4-6 years) 18%, Group 3 (7-9 years) 14%, Group 4 (10-15 years) 17%, and Group 5 (above 15) 35%, respectively.

Table 1: A Summary of Subjects Description

| | |
|---|---|
| SEX | |
| Male | n = 171 (62%) |
| Female | n = 107 (38%) |
| SCHOOL TYPE | |
| Primary School | n = 143 (51%) |
| Secondary School | n = 135 (49%) |
| EDUCATION LEVEL | |
| Bachelor Degree | n = 37 (13%) |
| Teacher College Certificate | n = 232 (83%) |
| School Leaving Certificate | n = 9 ( 4%) |
| TEACHING EXPERIENCE (Years) | |
| 1 - 3 | n = 45 (16%) |
| 4 - 6 | n = 49 (18%) |
| 7 - 9 | n = 39 (14%) |
| 10 - 15 | n = 47 (17%) |
| Above 15 | n = 98 (35%) |
| POSSESS A DEGREE IN PHYSICAL EDUCATION | |
| Yes | n = 24 ( 9%) |
| No | n = 227 (81%) |
| Currently working toward one | n = 27 (10%) |
| Total number | n = 278 |

Mean and standard deviation of scores reflecting the fulfilment of teaching objectives are presented in Table 2. Among these objectives, "encourage students to participate in physical training or recreational sport activities" obtained the highest mean scores (M=4.60, SD=.66), followed by "provided knowledge to stimulate students' interest towards PE" (M=4.39, SD=.54), "improve students' organic and neuromuscular system" (M=4.32, SD=.48), "develop desirable attitudes" (M=4.23, SD=.56), "improve students' fitness level" (M=4.20, SD=.46), and "cultivate ability or power of appreciation, observation, analysis judgement, and creativity" (M=3.89, SD=.65). Overall, nearly 80 percent of the respondents obtained a mean score of "4" in a 5-point rating scale, which reflected that they had "sometimes" achieved the above teaching objectives.

Table 2: Means and Standard Deviations by Achievement of Objectives

| Teaching Objectives | Mean | Std Dev |
|---|---|---|
| Improve neuro-muscular system | 4.32 | .48 |
| Improve fitness levels | 4.20 | .46 |
| Provide cognitive knowledge | 4.39 | .54 |
| Develop desirable attitudes | 4.23 | .56 |
| Cultivate ability or power of observation, analysis, judgement and creativity | 3.89 | .65 |
| Encourage participation of extra-curricular sports activities | 4.60 | .66 |

Upon analysis of the scores for the influencing factors, management skill was found to be the only factor accounting for the difference in the achievement of teaching objectives between inexperienced and experienced physical education teachers (Table 3). Scores obtained for the influencing factor of management skill were analyzed by a 2x5 ANOVA and presented in Table 4. The F ratio (2.429) obtained for the main effect of teaching experience was significant at the .05 level of confidence while the F ratios (3.518, and .302) for the main effect of school and the interaction between experience and school were not significant. When the Duncan Test was performed where group differences existed, it was found that teachers with 1-3 years of teaching experience obtained a mean of 3.82 which

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differed significantly from teachers with over 15 years of teaching experience, whose mean was 3.72, at the .05 level of confidence. When means of the sub-factors in management skills were examined, "class organization" was found to be the most influencing factor affecting the achievement of teaching objectives (Table 5).

Table 3   Summary of the Results on Influencing Factors

| Influencing Factor | School | Experience | Interaction |
|---|---|---|---|
| Subject Knowledge | >.05 | >.05 | >.05 |
| Management Skill | >.05 | <.05 * | >.05 |
| Teaching Technique | >.05 | >.05 | >.05 |
| Evaluation Skill | >.05 | >.05 | >.05 |
| Personality | >.05 | >.05 | >.05 |
| Value System | >.05 | >.05 | >.05 |
| Appearance | >.05 | >.05 | >.05 |
| School Support | >.05 | >.05 | >.05 |
| Equipment | >.05 | >.05 | >.05 |

Note: * Significant at .05 level of confidence

Table 4   Summary of 2 × 5 Anova for the Scores of the Influencing Factors of Management Skill

| Source | SS | Df | MS | F | P |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| School | 4.727 | 1 | 4.727 | 3.518 | >.05 |
| Experience | 13.053 | 4 | 3.263 | 2.429 | <.05* |
| Sch × Exp | 1.621 | 3 | .405 | .302 | >.05 |
| Error | 305.089 | 227 | 1.344 | | |
| Total | 323.082 | 236 | 1.369 | | |

Note: * Significant different at .05 level of confidence

Table 5   Mean Score for Each Item Which Make up Factor of Management Skill

| Variable | Mean | Std Dev | Rank |
|---|---|---|---|
| Lesson Plan Preparation | 4.29 | .59 | 3 |
| Teaching Time Management | 3.84 | .67 | 4 |
| Class Organization | 4.49 | .53 | 1 |
| Discipline | 4.36 | .57 | 2 |

Descriptive data on the factors influencing teaching objectives are presented in Table 6. The most influencing factors were the availability of sports facilities (M = 3.96, SD = 1.16), followed by school support (M = 3.75, SD = 1.29), value system (M = 3.67, SD = 1.31), personality (M = 3.52, SD = 1.23), teaching technique (M = 3.51, SD = .86), evaluation skills (M = 3.49, SD = .94), management skills (M = 3.45, SD = 1.16), subject knowledge (M = 3.26, SD = .76), and appearance (M = 3.22, SD = 1.22).

Table 6   Means and Standard Deviation Scores of Influencing Factors

| | Mean | Std Dev |
|---|---|---|
| Subject Knowledge | 3.26 | .76 |
| Management Skill | 3.45 | 1.16 |
| Teaching Technique | 3.51 | .86 |
| Evaluation Skill | 3.49 | .94 |
| Personality | 3.52 | 1.23 |
| Value System | 3.67 | 1.31 |
| Appearance | 3.22 | 1.22 |
| School Support | 3.75 | 1.29 |
| Equipment | 3.96 | 1.16 |

## Discussion

### *Demographic information*

The results of the study showed that the numbers of the respondents from primary and secondary schools were representative, 51 percent and 49 percent respectively. With regard to the educational levels, only 13 percent of the total respondents held bachelor's degrees as their highest academic qualification whilst the remaining respondents were graduates of the local teachers' colleges. These results support the findings of the Hong Kong Sports Development Board that further professional training or degree courses for the local physical educators are urgent (Wells, 1991). In some respects, the results of this study are encouraging, in view of the fact that all groups of teachers regardless of years of teaching experience participated in this study.

### *Achievement of objectives*

The second part of this study was to investigate how many of the respondents had fulfilled their teaching objectives. The teaching objectives used in this study were suggested by the Hong Kong Education Department which were divided into three domains, namely, psychomotor domain, cognitive domain, and affective domain. Overall, the results of the ratings were ranged from 3.89 to 4.60. It is both encouraging and challenging to learn that most of respondents have "always" fulfilled their achievement of teaching objectives. What is still not clear, however, is whether all these objectives have been measured by evaluation materials in terms of skills test, written test and affective assessment. Therefore, further investigations in these areas should be conducted. Among all these objectives, participants rate "cultivate ability or power of observation, analysis, judgement, and creativity" as the lowest score (3.89). Such a finding indicated that creative learning was not a major emphasis in the educational philosophy of the local physical educators.

### *The influencing factor: management skill*

The relationship between management skill and years of teaching experience was examined and identified as having the most influence among primary and secondary school physical educators. When examined, the rank order of the sub-factors in management skills, "class organization" obtained the highest mean score, followed by "discipline", "lesson plan preparation" and "teaching time management". Results indicated that teachers with one to three years of teaching experience encountered more difficulties in class management than veteran teachers. According to Duke (1979), class management broadly refers to the provisions and procedures necessary for establishing and maintaining an environment in which instruction and learning can occur. Dolye (1985), in addition, stated that "successful management depends on a teacher's skill in recognizing and interpreting events within a complex classroom scene" and requires intellectual understanding "building up gradually through direct instruction, practical experience and systematic reflection on experience" (p.33). However, research studies on the relationship between management skill and teaching experience have not yet been developed. As Luke (1989) indicated research on class management in physical education was at an early stage when compared to the quality and status of research emerging from the general context of teaching. Therefore a research framework and the replication of studies on class management in physical education is emerging.

### *Overall responses to the influencing factors*

In this study, the overall mean scores of each factor influencing the achievement of teachers' goals were fairly close in order. From most influencing to less influencing, they are: equipment (3.96), school support (3.75), value system (3.67), personality (3.52), teaching technique (3.51), evaluation skill (3.49), management skill (3.45), subject knowledge (3.26), and appearance (3.22). Taking a close look at the factors which most affect the physical educators in Hong Kong, shortage of equipment and lack of school support have been widely assumed as the major obstacles to the development of school sports in Hong Kong. In this study, "sports equipment and facilities" were rated as the factor that affects successful teaching most. This finding reflects that there is still a general lack of sports facilities available to local schools for training and teaching. According to the Hong Kong Municipal Councils, there were still 96 secondary and 100 primary schools relying on the use of public and hard surface recreation grounds for their physical education lessons in 1992. To promote school sport as a whole, it is logical that extra funds should be allocated to those schools with great needs for purchasing or hiring sports equipment and facilities. Otherwise, the development of the local school could hardly achieve a well-balanced growth.

The second most important factor affecting the achievement of teaching objectives was the school support. Most of the respondents reported that they obtained limited support from their school principals. This finding is not quite parallel to the results of a recent study on local principals' attitudes towards physical education and sports in schools. According to Chan and Lo (1992), over 90 percent of the school principals supported the physical education programme as necessary to attain their educational goals. A possible explanation for the discrepancy is that where various educational goals need to be achieved, the priority of physical education is not emphasized by school principals. As a result, funds allocated to a physical education programme might not be as adequate as the physical educators require.

In summary, other variables such as value system, personality, teaching technique, evaluation skill, management skill, subject knowledge, and appearance create less problems to all respondents in this study. However, as Ornstein (1985) indicated, researchers have been unable to answer with confidence what influence a teacher has on students' performance or behaviour because there are too many variables involved.

## Implications

The results of this study revealed that several problems, including inadequate equipment, limited space, class management influenced the achievement of teaching objectives in physical education. However, if certain adjustments were made to the local physical education curriculum for physical educators as well as the curriculum for the primary and secondary school students, the quality of our teaching and student's learning can be improved to a large extent.

### *Implications for professional preparation program*

Educational reformers advise stronger working ties between teacher preparation programmes and the school (Goodlad, 1990; Holmes, 1990). The relationship between pedagogical theory and actual field activity needs to be addressed by programme planners and policy makers. In fact, the local physical educators often reflect that the pedagogical theory they learnt from textbooks or lectures is too ideal for practical teaching. The reasons most frequently stated is that in the "real world of teaching", many constraints such as limited equipment and/or space for large class size activities exist but teachers have no immediate strategies for solving these problems. Sometimes, it may take years of practical experience to seek out effective ways of large-group teaching. Possibly, that is why the results of this study indicate that veteran physical educators encounter less problems in class management than novice teachers; they have had more time to resolve these disparities. Consequently, it appears that the curriculum content for future physical educators need to be revised or adjusted in order to shorten the time it takes for the journey from novice to expert. Several assumptions are suggested here for the programme planners' considerations. *First*, the technique of class management should be greatly emphasized in the teacher education programmes. Proper supervision and managerial skills are especially important for large-class teaching to maximize students' learning time in a safe environment. Teachers need to develop a wide variety of management techniques from which to choose. With limited space and equipment for large-class teaching, certain management skills need to be stressed. These include: (a) teach students selfmanagement skills, (b) establish a class routine, (c) give short and clear instructions, (d) plan the care and efficient use of available equipment and space.

*Second*, the training program should make use of a problem-solving approach in conjunction with the use of audio-visual aids. After the student teachers have obtained a content background from textbooks or lectures, it may be valuable for teacher educators to use audio- or videotaped lessons as a way to stimulate the development of skills in beginning teachers. In much of the literature reviewed, the activity setting for physical education is not detailed nor is adjustment suggested for large-class teaching. Therefore, my third suggestion is to design and create teaching manuals for this specific purpose. At present, the class size of the local primary and secondary school ranges from 40-45 students. Topics could include: How to teach forty or more students on a volleyball court with 8-10 volleyballs. Or how to teach physical fitness in a basketball court without any equipment offered. Such discussions are very relevant to teachers' needs in Hong Kong.

## *Implications for the school physical education curriculum*

Of the multitude of problems confronting the development of local school physical education, the present school physical education curriculum is the one that most needs to be carefully reviewed and analyzed. Since requests for more budget allocations to expand the school physical education programme have been repeatedly rejected, an attempt to redesign the present curriculum would appear to be more practical. Therefore, activities that require little or no equipment such as dance, fitness, and most team sports should be emphasized in the physical education programme where appropriate quantities of equipment are unavailable.

In addition, the following questions could serve as a guide for aiding in the redesigning process:

Does the present curriculum include objectives only in the psychomotor domain or does it reflect a more holistic view of the learner and encompass affective and cognitive objectives as well? It seems that on a pragmatic level, the objectives should be reasonable in relation to the resources available in terms of time, facilities, equipment as well as teacher accountability. If it is decided that multiple primary objectives are essential to a programme, but resources contraints will not allow for the attainment of all these objectives, a decision must be made to prioritise or eliminate unattainable objectives. According to Koslow (1988), when multiple objectives of a physical education curriculum cannot be achieved, either the number of objectives must be reduced to a workable size, or the programme resources must be increased. Ideally, an increase in budget allotment and time distribution would greatly enhance the attainment of multiple objectives. However, until ample resources for that attainment are secured, programme planners or decision makers must not claim more objectives than can be met.

In addition, several questions must be resolved such as: Will objectives be attainable and measurable as determined by unit length, and active learning time? Will the programme be balanced to account for a variety of student needs and interests?

Physical educators should be aware that each objective must be specific, measurable, attainable within the time restraints of the programme. If more than one objective is to be incorporated within a programme, the attainment of each objective must be evaluated in light of the presence of all other objectives. Unfortunately, what the investigator perceived is that most of the local physical educators only perform psychomotor assessment of their students whilst cognitive and affective evaluation go unassessed. However, as physical education has already been offered as an examination subject in HKCEE since 1991, the development of cognitive objectives in the local physical education curriculum needs to be expanded promptly. Even in the primary school curriculum, simple knowledge tests on sports or physical education should be constructed as early as possible. Thus, evaluation skills in instructional design for the local curriculum should be greatly developed and improved.

In summary, the local physical educators must have expectations of students and create ways for them to achieve success. Also, teachers must do more than expect students to be "busy, happy, and good" (Placek, 1983). Finally, students should be expected to develop certain skills, acquire certain concepts, and behave in certain ways. This is the essence of teaching, and evaluation is the means of measuring the success in doing these things.

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# The Early Childhood Physical Education INSTEP in Hong Kong: An Innovation Model for a Better Future

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The present paper looks at several aspects of the In-service Teacher Education Programs (INSTEP) in Physical Educating (PE) for early childhood educators in Hong Kong. After a brief description of the existing preschool training provisions in PE, some findings are presented on the offer of PE INSTEP nowadays. These indicate that apart from the inadequate PE training both in the initial and in-service teacher education programs, there are inadequate well-planned PE INSTEP organized by various institutions at different levels. Therefore, a PE INSTEP Innovation Model is developed to give recommendations on the existing PE INSTEP in Hong Kong.

### 香港幼兒體育教師在職進修課程：一個創造未來的革新模式

本文探討了幼兒體育教師在職進修課程的發展問題，而通過對幼兒體育教師在職進修課程的初步分析，發覺現行的學前體育培訓非常不足，而且也缺乏有系統的統籌。基於此，本文提出一個幼兒體育教師在職進修課程的革新模式，以助推進幼兒體育教師的在職培訓。

## Introduction

Preprimary education has become an accepted part of Hong Kong's culture. Nowadays, most children in Hong Kong between the ages of three and six years go to preschools, 89% of them to kindergartens which are registered with the Hong Kong Education Department, and the rest to child care centres which come under the jurisdiction of the Social Welfare Department (Ed Comm, 1986). The early childhood period, defined as "birth through age eight" (NAECY, 1982), in particular, the preschool years (3 to 6 years old) are crucial and significant ones for learning and development (Skinner, 1979; Kelly & Kelly, 1985; Opper, 1992) since during this period, children aquire the knowledge, skills, and attitude that will determine their future learning and establish the foundations for their subsequent development. (Opper, 1992). Movement is a part of all learning. It has been viewed as the essence of life, and the primary vehicle through which young children learn (Vannier & Gallahue, 1978). Therefore, motor learning and development through Physical Education (PE) is an essential aspect in early childhood education (ECE) programmes for children. However, the success and effectiveness of preschool PE is highly dependent on the quality to teachers who direct it. Research has shown that the training of teachers is important in imporving quality in early children programmes (ECP). (Snider & Fu, 1990, Ruopp et al, 1979, Powell & Dunn, 1990).

In Hong Kong, serious problems arising from the existing early children educator preparation system include shortage of trained kindergarten (KG) teachers, lack of enthusiasm and incentives; low professional recognition; insufficient knowledge-based and skill-based professional training; and the limited scope of teacher education and development. In order to remain up-to-date in his field; to improve his classroom practice and professional competence, a teacher has to be engaged in professional development through In-service Education (Pang, 1992). It is obvious that In-service Teacher Education Programme (INSTEP) in particularly PE, can be viewed as one of the very appropriate training opportunities for pre-school teachers.

The present paper introduces the development of an Early Childhood PE INSTEP Innovation Model, followed by a situation analysis on the existing preschool PE INSTEP in Hong Kong. It concludes by presenting recommendations for changes.

## The Development of the Hong Kong Early Childhood PE INSTEP Innovation Model

Before an in-depth discussion on the development of this Hong Kong Early Childhood PE INSTEP Innovation Model, it is necessary to identify the purposes for the establishment of the Model and the rationale behind.

The purposes of the Model are two-fold:

(a) to identify strategies for early childhood PE INSTEP development in Hong Kong.
(b) to analyse the existing situation of early childhood PE INSTEP in Hong Kong.

In developing the Model, the writer strongly believes that:

(a) INSTEP plays an important role in the career-long process of professional development in teacher education; and

(b) PE plays an important role in pre-school education.

These two beliefs form the rationale of the Model.

It is now widely accepted that teacher education should be a career-long process, rather than being limited to the relatively short period of initial training (pre-service teacher education) (Pang, 1992). Lake (1982) points out that no matter how long or how comprehensive the period of initial education is, it will not be sufficient for the coming years of professional practice. Therefore, another phase of teacher education called in-service education or in-service education for teachers (INSET) has been viewed as crucial and necessary to the further professional development of teachers. Bolam (1981) considered INSET as:

> those education and training activities engaged in by primary and secondary school teachers and principals following their initial professional certification, and intended mainly or exclusively to improve their professional knowledge, skills and attitudes in order that they can educate children more effectively. (p.3)

Accordingly to the British Government Committee (ACSTT 1974), the aims of INSET are to enable teachers:

(a) to develop their professional competence, confidence, and relevant knowledge;

(b) to evaluate their own work and attitudes in conjunction with their professional colleagues in other parts of the education service;

(c) to develop criteria which would help them to assess their own teaching roles in relation to a changing world for which schools must equip their pupils; and

(d) to advance their career.

INSET includes all activities such as long or short updating and retraining courses, seminars, workshops and conferences offered by bodies such as the Education Department, universities, teacher associations and other voluntary associations, aiming at extending teachers' personal education, developing their professional competence and improving their understanding of educational principles and techniques (DES, 1972).

Over the past twenty years, educators have emphasized and recognized the importance of INSET. The recommendations of the James Report (DES, 1972) in England and the Karmel Report (ASC, 1973) in Australia, the Llewellyn Report (Hong Kong Government, 1982) and Education Commission Report No. 5 (Hong Kong Government, 1992) are evidence of its important role on teacher education and development.

Apart from the importance of INSET as mentioned above, another element in the rationale is the important role of PE in pre-school education.

PE, defined as "the art and science of human movement" (Siedel, 1972, p.4), is a subject and yet more than a subject. It is an integral part of total education (Seaton et al, 1969; Daver, 1970) which contributes to the fullest possible development of the individual in accordance with his capacities (Daver, 1970) in a democratic society (Daver, 1970; Wetton, 1988) through the natural medium of directed and carefully planned learning experiences in physical activity — human movement (Guidelines for Secondary School PE, 1970) listed to enhance and harmonize the physical, intellectual, social and emotional aspects of an individuals's personality (Seaton et al., 1969; Wetton, 1988).

With respect to the aim of PE, Bookwalter (1962) stressed that PE is

> the optimum development of the physically, mentally and socially integrated and adjusted individual through guided instruction and participation in selected total body sports and rhythmic and gymnastic activities conducted according to social and hygienic standards.

According to Burcher et al. (1961), Wetton (1988), the main objectives of PE can be categorised into the following four important aspects:

(a) Physical Domain (organic development), including physical fitness and body organism.

(b) Psychomotor Domain (neuro-muscular development), including sports skills and movement.

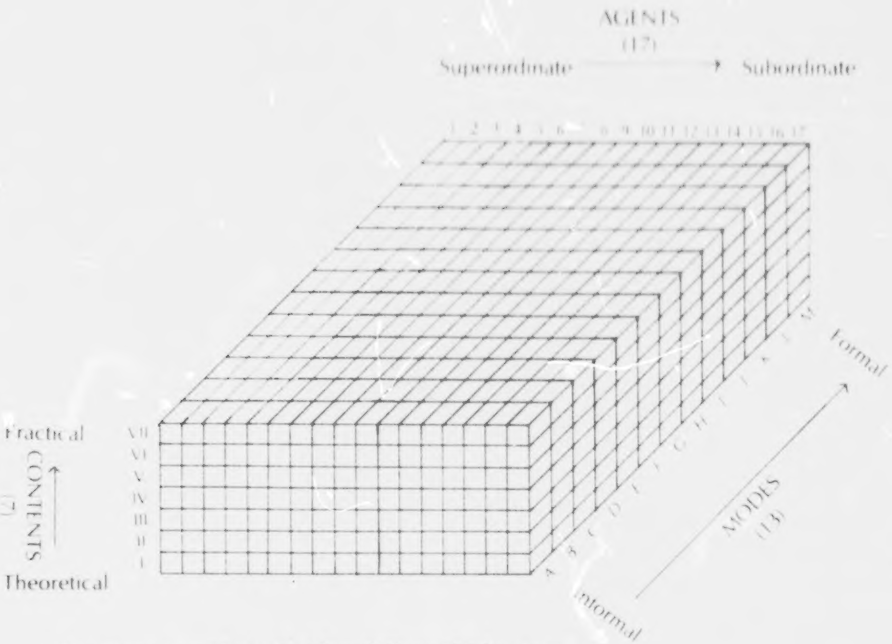
(c) Cognitive Domain (intellectual development), including knowledge and understanding associated with exercises and movement.

(d) Affective Domain (social-personal-emotion development), including emotional and social behaviours.

Children are dynamic, exploratory creatures. The vast portion of their early learning comes from and through movement. Movement is a significant primary facilitator of cognitive, effective and motor development, particularly during infancy and early childhood (McClenaghan & Gallahue, 1978; Luebke, 1981). The greatest learning period of a person's life is between one and six years of age (Vannier & Gallahue, 1978). Children find deep satisfaction in big-muscle movements of running, skipping, hopping, and jumping.

The importance of PE in early childhood education has been discussed in numerous early studies (Humphrey, 1948; Lee, 1937, Allen, 1977; McClenaghan & Gallahue, 1978). Physical plays can enhance social development (Piaget, 1962, 1965; Bruner, Jolly & Sylvo, 1976) and free children from anxiety. Furthermore, appropriate physical exercises are beneficial to normal growth and development (Mein & Oseid, 1982; Borms, 1986; Bar-Or, 1989; Goldberg, 1989; Stanitski, 1989). Epidemiological evidence strongly suggests the beneficial effects of physical exercise in the prevention of coronary artery disease (Paffenbarger et al., 1970; Morris et al., 1980; ACSM, 1983; Goldberg & Elliot, 1985; Fagard, 1985; Paffenbarger et al; 1986). Finally, appropriate physical exercises contribute a valuable component in therapeutic regimes for the control and treatment of coronary heart disease (AHA, 1975), systemic hypertension (Fegard, 1985), obesity (ACSM, 1983), musculoskeletal disorders (Norderman, 1981), respiratory diseases (Sinclair & Sinclair, 1980) and depression (Taylor, Sallis & Needle, 1985).

Following the presentation on the rationale, the development of the Model will be described. First, shown below is the Model.



The Hong Kong Early Childhood Physical Education
INSTEP Innovation Model

As shown, it is a three-dimensional matrix model comprising three pertinent variables: Agents, Contents and Modes. The inter-relationships between these elements can be clearly understood by juxtaposing them within the matrix. No matter what the INSTEP is, simple or complex, localized or imported; short or long; it needs agents which launch the programmes; different modes of INSTEP which suit teachers' needs and various types of contents which serve the training purposes. Based on this conceptual idea, the three inter-related elements are put together to form the Model.

The agents can be catergorized into superordinate groups and subordinate groups (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971). The former groups are concerned with the functions of knowledge, persuasion and decision; as well as organizing formal INSTEP; whilst the latter groups are concerned with decisions about implementation, and their functions are confined to communication and action, as well as organizing formal INSTEP. In Hong Kong there are 17 agents which have the potential to launch INSTEP because their roles directly relate to teacher education and development, and they play a role in children sports and health development in Hong Kong. They are:

1. Education Department, ED (AI): Kindergarten Section in the Advisory Inspectorate
2. Social Welfare Department (SWD): Training Unit
3. Hong Kong Polytechnic (HKP): Department of Applied Social Studies
4. College of Education (C of Ed)
5. Vocation Training Council: Lee Wai Lee Technical Institute (VTCLWLTI)
6. Chinese University of Hong Kong: Department of Extramural Studies (CUHK DES)
7. University of Hong Kong: School of Professional and Continuing Education (HKU SP&CE)
8. Hong Kong Baptist College: Department of Continuing Education
9. Open Learning Institute
10. Faculties of Education in Universities: F of Ed (Us)
11. Hong Kong Teachers Centre
12. Teachers' Associations: Hong Kong Professional Teachers' Union (HKPTU)
13. Educational Bodies: eg. OMEP-Hong Kong, Hong Kong Early Childhood Education Council & Hong Kong Educational Research Association
14. Sports Bodies: eg. Hong Kong Sports Institute, Hong Kong Sports Development Board
15. Hong Kong Children Health Foundation (HKCHF)
16. Private Educational Associations: eg. Chung Shing Education Centre
17. Kindergartens & Child Care Centres (KGs & CC Centres)

There are 13 modes of INSTEP ranging from informal to formal ones. The modes include:

A. Sharing (peer & group sharing)
B. Discussion (group discussion)
C. Visit (School, institution, association, centre & educational visits)
D. Attachment (school & centre attachment)
E. Workshop
F. Seminar
G. Symposium
H. Conference
I. Coaching (peer coaching, mentor coaching & technical coaching)
J. Short Course
K. Long Course
L. Distance-learning Course

Attendance Certificate
Certificate, higher Certificate, Diploma
Diploma, B Ed in ECE

M. Postgraduate Course (M Ed & Ph D in ECE)

In launching school-based INSTEP, A to H can be considered possible modes. As far as the content materials of INSTEP are concerned, the characteristics of these seven types of contents can be described as practical and theoretical. They build up the foundation of a knowledge-based and skill-based curriculum in ECE teacher preparation. Listed below are the contents:

I. *Educational Issues, Problems & Topics* (Discussion, Sharing & Recommendations on Issues, Problems & Topics; Research)
II. *Foundations of PE* (Philosophy, Physiology, Psychology, Anatomy & Physical fitness and Health)
III. *Curriculum, Planning & Teaching* (Curriculum & Planning, Organization & Instruction, Class Management & Discipline, Evaluation)
IV. *Sports Medicine & Science* (Nature, Prevention, Causes, Treatment of Sports Injuries; First-Aid & Safety Precaution)
V. *Extra-curricular Activities & Games Day* (Organization of ECA, Games Day, PE performance & competitions)
VI. *Programme Contents* (Locomotor, Nonlocomotor & Manipulative skills, Games, Rhythms & Dance, Gymnastics)
VII. *Keep-fit Activties* (Aerobic Exercises, Stretching Exercises, Muscle Strengthening Exercises, Stress Management Techniques)

In sum, the three elements in the Model form a close triadic relationship between them. The model provides a very strong base for the development of INSTEP in PE, providing a clear and comprehensive picture, even a direction and guidelines on strategic decision making. How this Model could help analyse the present Hong Kong PE INSTEP situation will be discussed in depth in the next section.

## Situation Analysis on the Existing Hong Kong Early Childhood PE INSTEP

The existing delivery of early childhood educator preparation is accomplished through a dual system. The details of the staff training are presented below:

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Staff Training in Early Childhood Education and Care

| Type of Training | Institution | Qualification |
|---|---|---|
| Kindergarten Staff | | |
| 12 weeks part-time | Kindergarten Section Education Department<br>Grantham College of Education | Qualified Assistant Kindergarten Teacher (QAKT) |
| 2 years part-time | Grantham Colege of Education | Qualified Kindergarten Teacher (QKT) |
| Nursery Staff | | |
| 8 weeks part-time | Hong Kong Polytechnic | Approved child care worker |
| 2 years part-time/*<br>3 years full-time** | Lee Wai Lee Technical Institute | Certificate in Child Care |
| 2 years part-time*** | Hong Kong Polytechnic | Higher Certificate in Child Care |
| Kindergarten and Nursery Staff | | |
| 2 years part-time distance learning | Hong Kong Polytechnic | Certificate in Preprimary Education |
| 2 years part-time**** | The University of Hong Kong, Department of Education | M. Ed. in Early Childhood Education |

* for Form 5 school leavers
** for Form 3 school leavers
*** for holders of Child Care Certificate
**** for university graduates

*Source:* Opper, 1992(A) P.56

With reference to the Course Contents outlined in the above-mentioned training provisions, a dismal picture of early childhood educator preparation in PE can be obtained: that professional knowledge, skills and competence are absolutely scarce and inadequate. Evidence can be shown from the total contact hours for PE of the existing courses listed below:

1. Two-year Part-time Day Release In-service Course of Training for Kindergarten Teachers (13.5 contact hrs.)
2. Twelve-week Part-time (Evening) Release In-Service Qualified Assistant Kindergarten Teacher Training Course (8 contact hrs.)
3. Eight-week Full-time Day Release In-service Basic Course for Child Care Workers (approx. 5 contact hrs.)
4. Two-year Part-time In-service Course for Child Care Workers (in LWLTI) (0 contact hrs.)
5. Three-year Full-time Course for Child Care Workers (in LWLTI) (0 contact hrs.)
6. Two-year Part-time Course for Child Care Workers (in HKP) (0 contact hrs.)
7. Two-year Part-time Distance Learning Course (in HKP) (0 contact hrs.)

With reference to the Model presented in the previous section, a comprehensive and complete analysis of the existing early childhood INSTEP in PE can be made.

In order to reveal the picture clearly with relevant and adequate figures, listed below is a 1991-92 record of PE INSTEP organized by various agents in different modes of training with specified contents excluding those part-time and distance learning courses.

The INSTEP on Preschool P E in Hong Kong 1991-93

| No | Date | Name of INSTEP | Total hrs | Agents | Modes | Contents |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | March 91 | The Re-thinking of the Teaching of Early Childhood P E | 3 | 11 | E & H | II & VI |
| 2 | July-Aug 91 | The Teaching of Early Childhood P E | 18 | 10 | K | II, III, IV, VI |
| 3 | Nov 91 | Physical Play in Kindergartens | 3 | 1 | E | II, VI |
| 4 | Mar-Jun 92 | The Teaching of Early Childhood P E | 18 | 6 | K | II, III, IV, VI, VII |
| 5 | Apr-Jun 92 | Early Childhood P E | 18 | 7 & 8 | K | II, III, IV, V, VI |
| 6 | May 82 | Physical Play & Rhythmic Exercises | 3 | 14 | E | VI |

The INSTEP on Preschool P E in Hong Kong 1991-93

| No | Date | Name of INSTEP | Total hrs. | Agents | Modes | Contents |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7 | Jun 92 | Stress & Health for Child Care Workers | 3 | 2 | E | VII |
| 8 | Jun-Jul 92 | Planning & Conducting Physical Acitivities in Child Care Centre | 21 | 2 | K | II, III, IV, VI, VII |
| 9 | Jul 92 | The Teaching of Early Childhood P E | 6 | 10 | E | II, III, VI |
| 10 | Jul 92 | The Teaching of Rhythmic Activities | 6 | 10 | E | VI |
| 11 | Jul 92 | The Teaching of Early Childhood P E | 3 | 6 | E | II, III, VI |
| 12 | Jul 92 | The Development of Physical Fitness in Children | 3 | 6 | I | II, IV |
| 13 | Jul 92 | The Planning & Organization of Games & Outdoor Activities in Early Childhood | 3 | 6 | I | IV, V |
| 14 | Aug 92 | Sports Medicine in Early Childhood P E | 6 | 6 | I | IV |
| 15 | Sep-Dec 92 | The Teaching of Early Childhood P E | 24 | 6 | K | II, III, IV, VI, VII |
| 16 | Sept 92 | The Teaching of Rhythmic Activities | 6 | 6 | E | VI |
| 17 | Sept 92 | The Teaching of Physical Play | 12 | 14 | I | II, III, VI |
| 18 | Oct 92 | The Teaching of Early Childhood P E | 1 | 11 | G | I |
| 19 | Oct 92 | How to improve children's Physical Fitness | 1 | 1 | E | V |
| 20 | Nov 92 | The INSTEP on Pre-school P E in Hong Kong | 1 | 11 | G | I |
| 21 | Apr-Jun 93 | Early Childhood P E | 18 | 7 & 8 | K | II, III, IV, V, VI |

The above findings reveal that as agents, only the following agents have conducted PE INSTEP before:

- Advisory Inspectorate (Kindergarten Section) of the Education Department
- Social Welfare Department: Training Unit
- Faculty of Education; and School of Professional & Continuing Education, the University of Hong Kong
- Department of Extra-mural Studies, the Chinese University of Hong Kong
- The Hong Kong Professional Teachers' Union
- The Hong Kong Educational Research Association
- The OMEP-Hong Kong (World Organization for Early Childhood Education — Hong Kong Branch)
- Chung Shing Educational Centre

This shows that most subordinate groups have put effort to launching appropriate INSTEP for teachers accompanied with the support from the universities, teacher associations and educational bodies. However, the ED & SWD have organized only two INSTEP before. The Department of Extra-mural Studies of CUHK has conducted 7 INSTEP courses since 1992. (CUHK has been recognized as the most enthusiastic agent.) Since it is very difficult to collect accurate data on the number of school-based INSTEP organized by kindergarten and child care centres, no findings on this aspect have been shown here. There were four school-based INSTEP conducted by the writer for teachers and child care workers in Aug, Sept, Oct and Nov, 1992.

Secondly, as far as the modes of INSTEP are concerned, the frequency of the adopted modes based on the PE INSTEP of 1991-93 is presented as follows:

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Workshop: | 9 times | | Short Course | 4 times |
| Long Course | 6 | & | Symposium | 2 times |
| Conference | 1 time | | | |

As shown above, the most popular mode of INSTEP is Workshop (3-6 hrs). The second popular one is Long Course (18-24 hrs. lasting for 2 to 3 hrs), followed by Short Course (3 to 10 hrs.). Only two educational bodies: OMEP-Hong Kong and HKERA have run seminars, symposia and conferences which have been considered very stimulating and useful. Therefore, the provisions of INSTEP in the popular modes are scarce and inadequate.

Thirdly, when the contents of the PE INSTEP are examined, some interesting facts are discovered. All the long courses covered the contents II, III, IV, and VI. The most attractive practical programme was about

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rhythmic exercises. From 1991-93, at least 3-5 such workshops were launched. Keep-fit activities, sports medicine and science were dealt with once in the workshop and short course mode respectively. Finally, only the symposium mode provides good opportunities of sharing and discussion of some educational issues, problems and topics.

After reviewing and analysing the present situation of PE INSTEP, with special reference to the Model, some major weaknesses and problems have been identified among the three elements — Agents, Modes and Contents, which shows the inadequacy both in quality and quantity in the existing provision of PE INSTEP in Hong Kong. The next section will focus on making recommendations for preschool PE INSTEP in Hong Kong.

## Recommendations on Early Childhood PE INSTEP in Hong Kong

The findings of the situation analysis have revealed a somewhat dismal picture of early childhood PE INSTEP in Hong Kong. Only few agents (mainly the DES, CUHK, SP & CE, HKU & PTU) have launched INSTEP with a focus on contents III & VI i.e. (Curriculum, Planning & Teaching; Program Contents); in the modes of long course and workshop.

In order to offer adquate PE INSTEP both in good quantity and quality as well as to satisfy teachers' inservice needs, well-organised long-term INSTEP planning comprising distinguishable roles among the agents; covering different contents, and using specified modes. The integrated plan on early childhood PE INSTEP below is recommended by the writer.

The Recommended Early Childhood P.E. INSTEP Plan in Hong Kong

| Group | Agent No. | Agents | Roles | Contents I | II | III | IV | V | VI | VII |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| a | 1 | ED (AI) | i v vi vii viii | FGH | EFGI | EFGI | EFGJ | EJ | EIJ | EJ |
| | 2 | SWD (Training Unit) | i v vi vii viii | FGH | EFGJK | EFGJKL | EFGJK | EJK | EJK | EJK |
| b | 3 | HK Poly (Dept App Soc St) | i iii v vi viii | FGH | EGKL | FGKL | FGKL | FGKL | FGKL | FGKL |
| | 4 | C of Ed | iv | – | J | J | J | J | J | J |
| | 5 | VTCLWLTI | iv | – | J | J | J | J | J | J |
| c | 6 | CUHK (DES) | v vii | – | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK |
| | 7 | HKU (SP&CE) | v vii | – | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK |
| | 8 | HKBC (DCE) | v vii | | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK |
| | 9 | OU | v vii | – | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK |
| | 10 | F of Ed (Us) | ii vi vii viii | FGH | MEFG | MEFG | MEFG | ME | ME | ME |
| d | 11 | Teachers' Centre | i v vii | FGH | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK |
| | 12 | HKPTU | i v vii | FGH | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK |
| e | 13 | Ed Bodies | vi vii viii | FGH | EFG | EFG | EFG | EFG | EFG | EFG |
| | 14 | Spt Bodies | vi vii viii | FGH | EFG | EFG | EFG | EFG | EFG | EFG |
| | 15 | HKCHK | vi vii viii | FH | EFG | | EFG | – | EFG | EFG |
| f | 16 | Private Ed Assn | vi vii | – | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK | EJK |
| g | 17 | KGs & CC Centres | xi | A F | A F | A F | A F | A F | A F | A F |

*Roles* i — Development & Planning; Supervision & Guidance; Consultancy
ii — Postgraduate Training
iii — Distance Learning Training
iv — Refresher Training
v — Short-Term/Long Term Course-oriented Training
vi — Educational Research, Conference-oriented sharing
vii — Workshop-oriented Training
viii — Seminar/Symposium-Oriented Training
xi — School-based/Centre-based Training

According to the Recommended INSTEP Plan, the agents (which have specified roles (i to xi) in INSTEP are classified into different groups (a to b). The classification of the agents are as follows:—

(a) Government
(b) Training Institution
(c) Continuing Education Institution
(d) Teacher Training Supporting Institution
(e) Supplementary Institution
(f) Private Institution
(g) School-based Institution

In sum, both ED & SWD should take more initiative and play an active role in the planning and organisation of a long-term INSTEP plan so as to improve system-based INSTEP in Hong Kong, whilst school-based INSTEP should be encouraged among all kindergartens and child care centres with the support of ED & SWD and should be provided in six modes. These modes are termed the bulletin, query, conference, course, consultancy and workshop modes (Eraut, undated). Finally, the emphasis on the selection of content materials for INSTEP may follow the suggestions listed below according to the teachers' in-service needs:

1. Workshop — mainly for practical activities such as rhythms, dance and keep-fit exercises
2. Short course — mainly for individual parts of the contents
3. Long course — mainly for all parts of contents
4. Seminar, Symposium and Conference — mainly for sharing, discussion, presentation of research papers, educational issues and problems

A possible strategy for launching appropriate PE INSTEP is that all agents should follow the plan strictly and play their own roles well for the sake of quality of INSTEP.

## Conclusions

In Hong Kong, early childhood PE INSTEP has played a very important and crucial role in professional education and development for pre-school educators because of the lack of initial education for kindergarten teachers; the shortage of trained kindergarten teachers (58% in 1990, 55.8% in 1991, 58% in 1992) (Ed. Dept., 1991; Ed. Dept., 1991; ECR5, 1992 respectively); the limited scope of the existing training system; and the deficiency of contact hours for PE in the training courses. It is hoped that the development of the Model will provide a solid ground for the early childhood PE educators, experts and INSTEP organizers of different levels both to plan and to offer appropriate programmes which will satisfy teachers' needs in Hong Kong. No matter how good the plan is, the success of PE INSTEP has to depend on:

- the degree of Government's willingness to accept Early Childhood Education as a fully-aided sector;
- extra funding from the Government to provide adequate INSTEP;
- the provision of refresher training courses with specialization in PE to teaching staff;
- the recruitment of pre-school PE experts in the field;
- the conduct of research on teachers' PE INSTEP Needs;
- the collaboration and cooperation among the agents, in particular, the good Triadic Relationships among the Government, Training Institutions/Continuing Education Institutions and the Schools, Kindergraten/Child Care Centres;
- adequate support for school-based INSTEP; and
- the recognition of INSTEP in substantial salary increase and career advancement.

To conclude, INSET is only considered one important phase of teacher education. If it is fully supported by the initial and induction education for early childhood PE teachers, then the teacher education process will become richer and fuller.

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# The Quality of Teaching and Learning in an Expanding Tertiary System

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The proposal to increase the first year tertiary intake from 5 to 18 per cent of the age group in order to meet market demands for more, and more varied, graduates has provoked fears of lowered standards. Such thinking is based on outmoded and simplistic notions of human abilities and the educational process. The proposed changes should be seen in the context of the educational system as a whole, so that (i) a fundamental rethink should take place about the nature and function of Forms 6 and 7, and (ii) changes of attitude, curriculum, and delivery, will be required within the tertiary sector itself. Given at least these two changes, the quality of tertiary education in Hong Kong would be greatly enhanced.

### 膨脹的大專教育下的教與學的質素

[illegible]提高到18%，藉此提供更多及更多類型的畢業生，[illegible] [illegible]

## To select or to educate?

The current tertiary expansion in Hong Kong should not just be seen as a problem of coping with larger numbers of students. Change on this scale represents a qualitative shift in the educational enterprise: in the kind of graduates produced, in their interface with marketplace needs, and in the kind of educational process intervening between leaving school and entering the workforce. It is this question of the nature of the educational process that I want to address.

In the days (not so long ago) when only 3-5% of the age group went on to university, the schools and universities had a simple job: it was to select. In the coming days, when Hong Kong lines up with most other developed countries and accepts at least 18% of the age group into tertiary education, the job is more complex: it is to educate. What we are about to do in Hong Kong, then, is to change the nature of the game in a fundamental way.

The system of Anglo-Chinese schooling in Hong Kong was conceived as a means of providing the civil service in particular, and increasingly industry, with highly able English-speaking graduates. Seemingly, the most cost-effective way of doing that was to teach a highly academic curriculum in the medium of English, with future progress periodically barred by a series of norm-referenced, or competitive, examinations. The product at the end of Form 7 was a highly selected English speaking student, firmly holding to the Confucian belief that effort and diligence were the road to success: the sort of student that tertiary teachers in other countries would give their eye-teeth to have in their classes.

The problem with that model is that in its selectivity, in the content taught, and in the language in which it was taught, it was elitist, actively involving in any serious sense less than the top 10% of all students. It was a very wasteful and frustrating model of education for the large majority of students. The educational philosophy in which it was based was a quantitative one, according to which students' teachability could be reduced to a single unidimensional scale along which all students could be ordered for selection purposes. This model of human ability we now know to be greatly oversimplified (Biggs & Moore, 1993; Gardner, 1985).

Nevertheless, there are many who adhere to such a simple, quantitative model of human abilities, and such people cannot avoid the conclusion that the present proposal to more than treble the tertiary intake necessarily involves a drastic drop in standards, given the lowered "quality" of the intake. Unless the university itself resolutely raises its own failure rates, so the argument runs, graduates will be greatly inferior to those currently produced, many even unemployable.

This argument assumes that the product of the educational process, the graduate, is a simple function of what the student brings in. I call it the "blame-the-student" model (Biggs, 1989), based on the notion that education is a matter of transmitting knowledge from wise to empty heads, and that academic ability is the one factor that directly determines the ease

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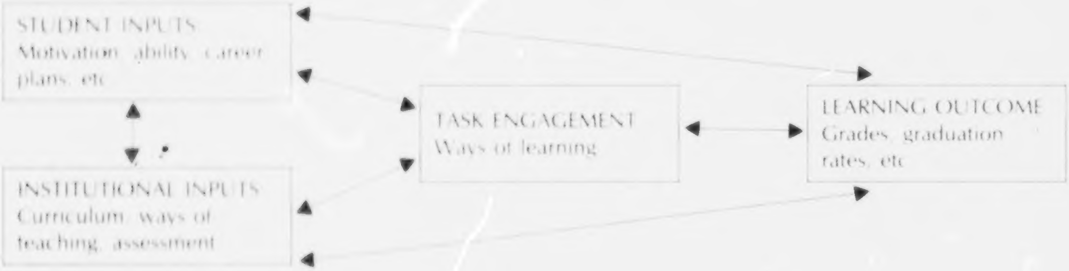
with which the transfer of knowledge takes place. It ignores what we know about the nature of learning; it ignores that there is such a thing called a process of education, in which both teachers and students are mutually engaged; and it assumes that transmitting knowledge in large lectures is the most appropriate and cost-effective way of educating.

The Open University (OU) in Britain is an outstanding counterexample to the entire selective argument. The OU did not merely open their intake to 18% of the cohort, they opened it to anyone at all of mature age who wanted to go to university. Only two weeks of the year are usually spent in lectures; the bulk of learning takes place with interactive text, private study, and small local seminars. And most telling, the standards as judged by external examiners and professional bodies are no lower than those of more conventional universities. On the other hand, dropout rates are higher, and yes of course it takes longer to graduate: but then OU students have full-time jobs as well. Certainly, the OU experience puts paid to the simple model which states that the students' academic ability is the only, or even the major, factor in successful tertiary performance.

When we talk about the educational "system" we should recognise what the word "system" means. In a system, the component parts are in balance, as in an ecological system. If you change one important component, the system is thrown into temporary disequilibrium, with usually unwanted results, until a new equilibrium and hence a new system evolves (Von Bertalanffy, 1968).

The previous language policy to teach in English in Anglo-Chinese schools is a perfect example of systems theory at work. The policy, requiring teachers and pupils to communicate in English, is unrealistic when both share the same mother tongue, and most students and many teachers are not sufficiently proficient in English. The unwanted but utterly predictable result is mixed code teaching, where English technical terms and key words are lodged in a Cantonese discourse structure, and testing (in English) targets the key English words. Such a resolution brings the system into equilibrium, with policy apparently being followed, teachers and students being able to communicate, as confirmed in the examination results. However, other problems resulted and these are the target of subsequent policy: I hope the policy-makers and implementers are systems theorists.

The following diagram sketches the main components of the tertiary system.


STUDENT INPUTS
Motivation, ability, career plans, etc
INSTITUTIONAL INPUTS
Curriculum, ways of teaching, assessment
TASK ENGAGEMENT
Ways of learning
LEARNING OUTCOME
Grades, graduation rates, etc

Until the present, tertiary institutions have struck a balance: the top 3.5% of students comprise the inputs, they have worked out suitable ways of coping with the provided institutional inputs, and the outcomes in both graduation rates and levels of student performance match, more or less, community demand.

Now that happy state of stasis is to alter: student inputs are changing to 18% of the age level not 5%; community demand for graduates is changing, so both the output number and levels and nature of the performance output will change. The institutional inputs had better change: curriculum, ways of teaching different curricula adjusted both to the different student intake and to community demand, and methods of assessment. If these institutional aspects do not change, the quantitative simplicists will be correct: a lowered intake will result in either higher wastage through attrition, or lower standards at output. My point is that it need do neither. What ways of institutional change are there?

## The last years of schooling

Many will remember the concern the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Hong Kong (HKU), Professor Wang Gungwu, expressed a few years ago about the narrow education and the otherwise poor preparation tertiary entrants had received in school. His proposed remedy was an additional Foundation

Year at university, but as the UPGC refused to meet the additional costs involved, the plan never got off the ground. However, it is surely the Forms 6 and 7 years that should be used to broaden the knowledge base, and 'the language and learning skills of the students. The important thing is that those two years are spent in a *tertiary* learning mode, not in the school learning mode, in the way adopted in the best British and Australian Sixth Form Colleges: a broadening curriculum, with a liberal arts component, and the sort of learning environment in which self-regulated learning and communication skills can be acquired and authentically deployed. After the narrow, exam-dominated, focus of five years of secondary school, the last two years can now be for preparing already selected students in content, language, and learning skills, for a tertiary education.

At present, the learning skills acquired in these two years are finely honed to deal with the specific event of the "A" levels (with a nod in the direction of the "AS" subjects, of which more below); as Professor Wang has emphasized, students' learning skills are not currently being developed to handle a relatively unstructured environment in which the responsibility for learning is squarely on the student. A recent report from the HKU Personal Development and Counselling Centre (Choy, 1991) gave graphic evidence of the difficulties very many students had in coping with the sudden transition from the highly structured and pressurized environment of school to the world of options they faced from Orientation Week onwards at university. All that could be considerably eased if we thought through the changing role of the last two years of schooling.

Thus, one would confidently expect that students proceeding from a Sixth Form College, based on the old Forms 6 and 7 along the lines I have suggested, would be more able to cope with a university education than are the present cohorts of technically more able students. I say "technically", because sheer academic ability, of the convergent kind that is so ruthlessly selected in the present system, is not the only predictor of tertiary success. In fact, academic ability, of the convergent kind emphasised in traditional schools, becomes less and less important towards the top end of the distribution, and much less important towards the later undergraduate and into the postgraduate years, where academic quality is determined by divergent abilities, different kinds or "frames" of intelligence, special interests, and specific knowledge bases (Biggs & Moore, 1993; Gardner, 1985).

The essential ingredient if such a scheme is to succeed is to change the examination system, otherwise "A" level preparation will continue to dominate and to distort the ways teachers teach and students learn. Tentative steps in this direction were taken with the development of the "AS" examination, which was intended to take the heat off the three or so focal "A" level subjects. One key subject in this endeavour was appropriately called Liberal Studies, which was an interesting case study in systems theory. You can't change just one component in a complex system without adjustment throughout. What happened was that the old system took over and the changed component didn't "take": students were reluctant to take subjects that didn't "count"; schools didn't want to pick up subjects that demanded new resources, both human and material; the HKEA didn't want to offer examinations in subjects with small enrolments; and the universities, for a complex of reasons including inter-institutional rivalry, intra-institutional territoriality, and outmoded quantitative conceptions of the nature of expertise, would not change their admissions requirements. "AS" Liberal Studies had a hard time. The present resolution of the "AS" levels attempt to liberalize could even be seen to be worse than the previous state it was meant to improve, as there are now new examinations in Form 6, in addition to those we already had in Forms 5 and 7!

## The university years

As the institutions most affected by the increased numbers, it will be crucial that the universities show a little more generosity of spirit than they did over the "AS" levels debacle. Again, we have to take on board the idea that we are dealing with a complex interacting system: University teachers and administrators will just have to be prepared to rethink their aims and curricula, and strategies of teaching and assessing.

The easy way out is of course to pack all those new bodies into the same lecture rooms, if they will hold them all. And while it is just as easy to lecture to 300 bodies as it is to 200, it is not as easy to mark 300 essay-type assignments or lab reports as it is 200; that does take significantly more person hours. And because the UPGC, despite windfall Government budget surpluses, is resourcing the new developments to nothing like the extent indicated to those proposing them in the euphoria of expansionism, those extra person hours must come from somewhere, or cheaper alternatives found.

Taking the line of least resistance, more tests and examinations, particularly of a multiple-choice kind, would be an easy way to go; reducing tutorial hours would be another. But this strategy of more of the same would only result in a weaker version of the teaching we have hitherto given to the so-called "academic" top 5%, and the results will not be good. Let me return to the systems model. The box "task engagement" refers to ways of learning. There is not

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just one way, that dictated by the baggage brought in by the student, but several ways, which are variously elicited as much by the teaching environment as by the student. In particular, we distinguish between *deep* and *surface* approaches to learning (Biggs & Moore, 1993). A deep approach is that which we as teachers imagine we engender in our teaching: it is a proper engagement in the task, driven by the desire to learn, involving an appropriate level of understanding of the task and its place in the topic, and of the topic in the discipline.

If we are honest, however, we have to admit that many students do not understand in the way we want them to: rather, they deliberately embark on a course of shadow boxing, giving the impression of learning, or rather of meeting the requirements for learning, when they have not in fact done so. As Ramsden (1992) comments, in a recent book on teaching in higher education, some students often do not understand material because they don't *intend* to understand; they anxiously try to memorize selected details as the fail-safe strategy for answering the questions they know they will later be asked about the material. Such "imitation" or surface learning is common in tertiary institutions the world over; it results not from inherent evil in students, but from the teaching contexts in which such approaches indeed provide survival value. Deep learning is discouraged, and surface learning encouraged, by:

- assessment methods that emphasise recall of unstructured detail or the application of simple rules and algorithms, and that reward "knowledge telling" ("See how much I know!");
- cynicism, easily engendered by bargaining for marks, using mark deductions for time or length penalties, by setting "make-work" assignments, or even using "funny" alternatives in multiple-choice tests;
- a threatening, anxiety arousing, noncollegial departmental atmosphere;
- poor feedback on performance;
- teaching methods that encourage passivity, such as excessive lecturing, or tutorials that permit student non-involvement;
- excessive workloads and assignments, emphasising "coverage" at the expense of indepth engagement.

And so one could go on. Encouraging deep approaches to learning is the obverse of these, with emphasis on teaching methods that invite active and enthusiastic participation in clearly defined and meaningful tasks.

It would be inappropriate here to develop these very complex issues. My point is simply that the quality of academic performance at tertiary level is not solely, or even largely, a matter of attainment in the sort of convergent tests and testing conditions that apply at school level. What is important is that teaching adapts under changing conditions to encourage the sort of approaches to learning that will maintain academic standards.

The good news is that recent work in fact suggests quite strongly that our students have a stronger propensity for deep learning than do, for example, Australian students (Biggs, 1991). There are several possible reasons for this, but one must surely be that tertiary students in Hong Kong are highly selected and highly motivated. When, however, they become less highly selected, then teaching factors will become more and more important in determining their approach to learning; note that I am not arguing that present teaching methods are creating the deep approaches, but rather that the high selectivity naturally selects out students with a high potential for survival in existing teaching contexts.

With larger numbers, the trick will be to maintain a quality teaching environment. As indicated, larger numbers and decreasing resources make surface teaching more likely, but it doesn't have to be that way. There are plenty of cost-effective alternatives to larger lecture, fewer tutorials, and multiple choice testing, but these alternatives would involve an overhaul of curricula, interactive course materials, creative looks at assessment, and of course much staff development. In this respect, it augurs very well that HKU has established a Centre for the Development of Tertiary Teaching and Learning, and the appointment of a Director is in train. Other institutions have their own equivalent units. It will be the job of these Centres precisely to raise the consciousness of teachers about alternatives to present methods of teaching and assessing that will maintain learning quality.

Finally, I should say something about inter-institutional rationalisation. As the polytechnics set up degree courses to achieve parity with the universities in at least some areas, and as the former teachers' colleges amalgamate to form the Institute of Education, the role and specific thrust of particular institutions naturally comes up for review. It would not be sensible for them to compete with each other. In general, the mission of the present universities would lie in more academically oriented undergraduate, and in postgraduate, areas, that of the present polytechnic and college sectors more on undergraduate degree courses and vocational training. To take an example close to where I come from, the Faculty of Education at HKU ought not in my view be setting up more and more B.Ed. programmes (in the time taken to edit this paper, they have undertaken yet another!), but rather to concentrate on the higher degree work and on the research base that provide the staff development and the knowledge base, respectively, necessary for those other tertiary colleagues involved in what is in effect a career shift.

## Conclusion

To return to the problem presented by an expanding and more diversified market demand for graduates, and a greatly increased "dip" into the age group, I hope I have made it clear that the tertiary institutions need not "lower their standards", only to release a flood of ill-equipped and unemployable graduates, as many pessimists seem to believe. Such a belief in fact springs from an outdated and simplistic view of what education is about.

On the contrary, I would argue that graduate quality in general can not only be maintained but enhanced, if institutions (and here I would include the last two years of secondary school as well as tertiary institutions proper) reflect critically on their roles, their assumptions about teaching and learning, and on their methods of teaching and assessment. If they do not, then the doom-sayers will probably be correct, and that would be a tragedy because we do have the knowledge, and hopefully the will, to greatly increase the efficiency and effectiveness of tertiary education in Hong Kong.

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# Effects of Personality on Learning and Teaching

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As we know, intelligence and personality are the two major psychological factors affecting the learning of pupils and the teaching of teachers. Whilst many scholars would already have a good knowledge of intelligence, they may not have a clear understanding of personality. This paper aims mainly to introduce the concept and types of personality and its effects on education. It also attempts to point out its importance in relation to selection, streaming, guidance, teacher training, and the application of teaching methods.

## 個性對教與學的影響

我們知道，智慧與個性是兩大心理因素，影響着學生的學習與教師的教學。很多學者對智慧已有相當認識，然而對個性則可能認識不深。本文主旨是介紹個性的概念與種類及其對教育的影響，更指出個性在選擇、編班、輔導、訓練、和教學法應用之重要性。

## Introduction

Undoubtedly the two prominent psychological traits besides sociological and environmental factors having an important bearing on the learning and teaching processes are intelligence and personality. A lot of research has been done on the relationship between intelligence and academic achievement, but comparatively less so on the effects of personality on the pupils' learning and the teachers' teaching in the school situation. This paper attempts to examine briefly the concept of personality and to discuss succinctly this psychological impact of personality on the success of the combined learning and teaching outcome in the educational enterprise.

As we all know, one of the main functions of education is to develop the personality of the child. Generally speaking, there are three types of factors affecting the development of personality, and they are the physiological factors (e.g., body build, maturity, health, shape, and appearance), intellectual factors (e.g., ability, aptitude, and creativity), and environmental factors (e.g., nature, home, school, and society). As teachers, we are most concerned with the school environment as it is directly under our control. Our aims as educators will be to provide a conducive environment to the pupils so that they can form a well-balanced personality for leading a happy and profitable life after leaving school.

## Concept of Personality

Basically, personality is what makes up of a person. It is the sum total of a unique individual. In simple terms, it consists of all the essential psychological traits including intelligence, attitude, interest, motivation, and popularity. There are different schools of personality developed by various psychologists with contrasting training and background experience. The two main lines of thoughts are the depth psychology headed by Sigmund Freud and the trait theories well exemplified by Hans Eysenck. The author adopts the view of the trait theories (founded more on an objective, empirical, and scientific basis), for ease of presentation and acceptance by the general public in Hong Kong; as the Freudian theories (founded more on a subjective, projective, and clinical basis) are too much related to sex and violence.

## Personality Traits

Professor Hans Eysenck of the University of London Institute of Psychiatry has outlined four dimensions of personality derived from his systematic factor analytic studies in past years (Eysenck, 1970, 1975, 1976, 1981), and the universality of his theories has been confirmed by studies in Hong Kong (Eysenck and Chan, 1982), as very similar factors have been identified in both the English and Chinese samples. The four dimensions are extroversion versus intraversion (the sociability scale), neuroticism (the stability scale), psychoticism (the tough-mindedness scale), and dependability/lie (the social desirability scale). It should be noted that the scales are on a continuum (shifting all the time, depending on day, time, and place, as well as situation).

In general, an extroverted-stable child is sociable, outgoing, talkative, responsive, easygoing, lively, carefree, and has leadership; whereas extroverted-unstable (more on the psychotic side) child is active, optimistic, impulsive, changeable, excitable, aggressive, restless, and touchy. On the other hand, an intraverted-stable child is passive, careful, thoughtful, peaceful, controlled, reliable, even-tempered, and calm; whereas an intraverted-unstable child (more on the neurotic side) is quiet, unsociable, reserved, pessimistic, sober, rigid, anxious, and moody.

It appears that all types of human behaviour can be adequately explained by this model of personality. Classroom behaviour of both the pupils and the teachers can therefore be examined in terms of these personality types when reasons for the success of certain learning and teaching methods are to be given. As personality plays such an important part in the school situation, a good understanding of its measurement (Vernon, 1963; Semeonoff, 1966) will enable the teachers to help the children as well as themselves in the daily activities in the school. Yang (1986) discusses in some depth the personality of the Chinese and gives some insight into the various characteristics of the Chinese personality in relation to modern changes, whereas Eysenck (1978) examines directly the relationship between personality and the learning and teaching processes.

## Teaching and Learning

The personality of a teacher has a bearing on the success of a certain teaching method. For example, an extroverted teacher is more suited to using an activity approach, as he can bring the pupils together more easily and can get the cooperation of the pupils more effectively. Moreover, with an outgoing personality, the teacher is likely to enjoy being engaged in the activities together with the pupils.

On the other hand, the personality of a pupil has an effect on his learning success. A sociable pupil enjoys frequent contacts with his classmates. Hence, the activity approach to learning will be more beneficial to such pupils, since they enjoy learning through working with others and will find a co-operative learning situation more pleasant.

It has been demonstrated that extroverts learn much better than intraverts by the discovery method, while intraverts learn much better than extroverts by the direct teaching ("reception") method. Extroverts and non-anxious children tend to perform better under reduced stress, intraverts and anxious children under stress. All these indicate clearly the danger of comparing different methods of teaching without considering personality (of both teachers and pupils) at the same time, and looking for different reactions of different personality types to the teaching methods being used. As personality interacts with teaching method to a very significant extent, it has an important bearing on teacher education, which prepares teachers to handle individual differences including the personality of the pupils.

## Some Research Evidence

There is now a good deal of evidence to show that personality factors play an important part in learning. Eysenck (1978) demonstrates that personality dimensions like N (neuroticism-stability) and E (extroversion-intraversion) are indeed related to activities of interest to the educationist.

It has been found in western studies that high scores on the N scale nearly always work against scholastic achievement, although for the youngest groups the relation seems to be inverted, with high neuroticism/anxiety pupils having higher achievement scores. Hence, except in the primary school, neuroticism works against scholastic achievement. Whether this is also true in the Hong Kong situation is yet to be confirmed.

Similarly, high E scorers seem to be handicapped as compared with low E scorers as far as secondary school and university education are concerned. In primary school high E scorers seem to do well, and even better than low E scorers. The cause of this reversal from primary to secondary school is not precisely known, but it seems possible that it is related in part to the change from the comparatively free-and-easy atmosphere at primary school, which accords well with the extroverted, possibly the anxious temperament, to the more formal atmosphere at secondary school and university, which agrees better with the intraverted temperament. This possibility has been proved by research where children were tested at a school which combined primary and secondary classes under the same roof, and in which both were equally formal; here correlations with personality were similar for both the younger and the older children. Again, in the Hong Kong situation, the positive/negative effects of extroversion on learning at various levels need to be unravelled by our own research data.

It appears that personality determines not only in part how well a student will do in his academic work, but also in part what particular subject he will study. There has been research evidence to show that personality traits of neuroticism and extroversion are related to the students' choices of subjects of study. Generally, stable people tend to congregate in the "practically" biassed courses and subjects of study, whilst those with neurotic tendencies predominate in "people oriented" areas of study. In short, intraverts prefer theoretical and extroverts practical or "people oriented" areas.

## Personality Testing

As personality is of second importance on the list of psychological factors, teachers should have knowledge of the pupils' personality traits besides their own via the more scientific method of assessing personality rather than by mere observation of the behaviour of the pupils as well as themselves. The

Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire (both the Junior and Adult versions) has been translated into Chinese, standardised, and normed (with scoring keys for Hong Kong) by the author for use in Hong Kong. It can give valuable information regarding the personality of the pupils and the teachers themselves, so that the learning and teaching methods can be adjusted accordingly to the best advantage of both the pupils and the teachers.

The Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire is simple and easy to administer and to score. The Junior version has only 81 yes/no items, and the Adult version consists of only 90 yes/no questions. The questionnaire items are all very simple and there are no tricky questions. Both the Junior and Adult versions can be completed in 20-30 minutes, and the testee's interest can be easily maintained until the end of the questionnaire. It is noted that the Chinese versions have been increasingly used in recent years in Hong Kong for research studies by many investigators in both education and psychology.

The reliability and validity of the Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire will be further examined by the author in another paper (1994) in terms of the value systems of the Chinese people, and it is hoped that the analysis will shed more light on the nature of the Chinese personality. It is expected that more valuable information will be forthcoming from other research studies on Chinese culture.

## Conclusion

It can be concluded that in order to teach the child more effectively and efficiently, the child's psychological make-up including his personality should be clearly understood. It cannot be over-emphasised that the individual differences of the child as well as the teacher will play a significant part in the success of the learning and teaching processes. It has been well recognised by all educators that different children should be handled differently, and it is therefore of vital importance that a teacher should understand where the difference between children lies and apply a suitable method of teaching accordingly. As the Chinese saying goes, *"by knowing yourself and others, you can win all the battles"* (知己知彼，百戰百勝). It is my sincere wish that all teachers will be able to understand not only the cognitive ability (intelligence) but also the conative emotion (personality) of the children under their care. Finally, it should be pointed out that no matter how intelligent a child is, if he does not try his effort because of emotional problems, he cannot get very far academically.

Some recommendations are given below in the light of the foregoing concise presentation. Personality traits of both pupils and teachers should be used as one of the criteria in (1) the selection of pupils in admission, (2) the placement and streaming/setting of pupils in class, (3) the remedial activities in school, (4) the teacher training programme in the new Institute of Education, and (5) the choice of a teaching method for a particular group of pupils in an educational setting.

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# Education for Moral Living: A Reconsideration of Assumptions, Approaches and Modelling

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Today's educational crisis can be regarded as a value crisis. There has been a revival of concern for moral education in recent years, in the face of various types of educational crisis. Discussion on moral education today is largely dominated by values clarification, moral reasoning, and moral development. However, attention should also be paid to affective development and moral living. This paper outlines some recent concern for affective development and moral living in moral education, and discusses issues that may be crucial for the affective development and moral living of students. In the main, it calls for a just community for the practice of moral living, emphasis on reflection and dialogue, and self-regulation in moral instruction, and a provisional role model for students in moral life.

### 教育與道德生活：對一些假設、方法與模範的反省

今天的教育危機也可以說是價值危機。面對著種種的教育危機，道德教育近年來有著明顯的復興趨勢。現在有關道德教育的討論主要環繞著價值澄清、道德推理、道德發展等方面。然而，我們其實也需要注意到道德感情和道德生活的重要性。本文討論了近期有關道德感情和道德生活的一些討論。一方面，本文嘗試大膽的提出：要推行道德生活，我們需要提供一個公義的道德社會作為道德生活的環境，採納反省和對話作為道德教育的方法，以及鼓勵自我約束以尊重學生作為道德生活的主體而非客體。另一方面，本文檢討了「模範」的觀念在德育過程中的重要性，但亦指出其潛在的危險。因此，本文指出教師作為「暫時性模範」的概念的重要性。

## The Revival of Moral Education

Reflection upon moral education at this time is of practicular significance when people all over the world are facing rapid and dramatic changes in social and economic structures, in human relationships, in international relations, and in values. Living in a world or society which is radically distinct from the traditional past necessitates a reconsideration of moral principles. Such a need was strongly expressed in a Unesco report, *Education on the Move*, where it described young people as "youth in revolt" (Unesco 1975: 6-9). The tone of alarm was even stronger in another report in *Asiaweek*, entitled "Where the Kids Are?" The report delineated the change of values among the youth in different Asian countries in the process of modernisation. It stressed that "as the pressures induced by urbanisation and modernisation continue to buffet sensitive young minds, it will be up to Asia's parents to ensure they are not left unguided" (Yum 1985: 31).

In some ways, today's educational crisis is being regarded as a sort of moral and spiritual crisis. The 1983 OECD report on compulsory education pointed out that part of the student problem in compulsory education is their refusal to accept the value system of the adult generation (OECD 1983). According to Purpel (1989: 31-63), it is because of the existence of numerous dilemmas and conflicts in modern society, such as individuality versus community, worth versus achievement, equality versus competition, authority versus power and coercion, control versus democracy and ethnocentrism versus universalism, that students become perplexed. The emergence of student behavioural problems, rejection of learning, and rejection of the adult generations's value system are all reflections of these social dilemmas.

The awareness of the value crisis may have been the background for the revival of concern for moral education in different parts of the world in recent years. In 1988, Cummings, Gopinathan and Tomoda published *The Revival of Values Education in Asia and the West*. In their introductory chapter, they point out that despite some pessimism towards moral education in the past, the tide of opinion towards moral education has shifted. Americans have become attuned to the urge of "getting down to, and back to, the business of moral education of the young." Gallop polls in the U.S.A. indicate that parents are as concerned that schools should help students to develop standards of right and wrong as that they should teach them to speak, think, write and count. What is particularly noteworthy is that this upsurge of interest is not limited to American. In Canada in 1980, official public policies on moral education adopted in all save one of the provinces. Similar revivalist trends have also taken place in Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden, and Denmark (Cummings *et al.* 1988: 3-4).

Asia is no exception. In 1984, nine Asian countries, including China, India, Indonesia, Malaysia, Nepal, the Philippines, the Republic of Korea, Sri Lanka and Thailand embarked on a cooperative project on values education. The reasons for launching the project were: (1) because so many children fail to cope with the demands and stresses of the rapidly changing modern world, (2) because over the years school curricula have become excessively and rigidly academic at the expense of social, moral and personal values, and (3) because learning and education can be more joyful, challenging and rewarding than they are now, if sufficient attention is paid to children's affective development (Unesco 1992: i). In addition to this collaborative exercise, individual Asian countries have also propagated policies for promoting moral education, or embarked on various moral education programmes (see Lee 1990, 1993).

## A Focus on Education for Moral Living

The Unesco project on Education for Affective Development has placed emphasis on moral living as a part of moral education. By focusing on affective development, they aim to place special attention on pupils' feelings and emotions that are predispositional towards action. As stated, they are particularly interested in exploring how love, hate, joy, happiness, wonder, desire, grief and fear can play a part in developing our affective characteristics. Moreover, they see moral education as a process through which individuals come to harness their feelings and emotions so that their predispositions to action come to serve the best interests of the individual and society (Unesco 1992: 10-11).

In a seminar presentation on moral education in Guangzhou, Fouts (1991) put forward the notion of 'Education for Moral Living'. In his paper, Fouts stresses that the purpose of moral education is not only to seek values clarification and train moral reasoning, but to seek a successful method that will help the young to lead a moral live. He reviews and criticises four major approaches to moral education, namely, direct instruction, indoctrination, value clarification and the developmental approach, and suggests a fifth approach — modelling and identification. What is fundamental to his discussion are two assertions: (1) moral education must be understood in terms of the larger question of human existence, and (2) to make moral education possible, there must be an assumption of the existence of certain universally accepted moral codes. Concerning these two assertions, he says:

> Moral education cannot be separated from the larger question of human existence. Moral education must address the meaning, purpose, and hope of life. Any model of education must have an answer to the question, "Why be moral?" There must be a reason for leading a moral life, and it must be tied to a larger belief system (Fouts 1991: 33).

The questions of human existence and universal moral codes are related to philosophic discussion fundamental to moral living. From the practical perspective, Fouts proposes the modelling and identification approach to help the young practise moral living, which refers to the sharing and demonstration of a lifestyle and system of beliefs to young people on which young people can build their identities. Concerning the elaboration of this approach, Fouts says:

> Proponents of this perspective maintain that individuals adopt the values and belief systems of people who are important in their lives and whom they wish to emulate. This approach to moral education does not rely on a set of instructional strategies, per se, although various ones may be used. Rather, it relies on modelling, sharing, and demonstrating a lifestyle and system of beliefs for young people on which they can build their identities. These models are free from hypocrisy. Demonstrating a moral life is more effective than is teaching about one. . . . Most of us can look back at our younger years and there may be one or two important individuals in our life whom we admired and wanted to be like. They served as role models for us and we accepted many of their beliefs and values. With this perspective it becomes obvious that it is useless to have teachers teaching moral education who themselves are not moral. . . . With this fifth model, hiring of teachers as role models for students becomes extremely important. For many schools, it is a key unwritten criteria when selecting teachers (Fouts 1991: 29-30).

The major contribution of Fouts's paper is his emphasis on moral living. Discussion of moral education today is largely dominated by moral reasoning, values clarification, and questions probing, which are all focused on the cognitive aspects of moral development. Yet, a reminder for moral intent, moral action and moral living seems to be timely. Fouts has touched upon two important issues in his discussion, namely, the relationship between moral education and the larger question of human existence, and the teacher as a role model for moral education. These two issues raised in the early nineties should have significant relevancy for today. The discussion that follows will also focus on these two fundamental issues.

## Moral Education and Human Nature

While Fouts's discussion on human existence largely refers to the question of cosmological belief, discussion here is confined to the issue of human nature. The relationship between moral education and human nature is very close. Rarely do educational thinkers discuss the former without touching upon the latter. Classical Chinese thinkers like Confucius, Mencius and Xunzi have all touched upon human nature, human behaviour and moral education. Confucius points to the commonalities of human nature, saying that "by nature men are nearly alike, but through experience they grow wide apart." (Chai 1965: para 192). Although he has not detailed what these commonalities are, it can well be inferred that his core moral value system is based upon the belief in the existence of human commonalities. In a nutshell, Confucius may well believe that there are moral virtues common to all men. What is worth noting is that environmental influence is considered to be a decisive factor for the development of human behaviour.

The two disciples of Confucius, Mencius and Xunzi hold extremely opposite views of human nature. For Mencius, human nature is good but for Xunzi, evil. However, holding such extreme positions have caused problems for both. Mencius must explain why a person of good nature can become a villain. On the contrary, Xunzi has to explain why a person of evil nature can become a sage.

According to Mencius, since human nature is good, environmental influences are to blame if one becomes a villain. Perhaps the first philosopher to talk about environmental problems, Mencius draws an analogy that even a bountiful mountain will become barren if trees are hewn down day after day. Likewise good conscience will turn evil if it is continuously exposed to bad influences. Holding this view, Mencius contends that "learning is nothing else but the rediscovery of one's virtuous conscience, which has gone astray" (Legge 1930: 879). This understanding of human nature has several implications for moral education.

### *The need for a just community*

The first implication is that a favourable environment is required for moral living. A favourable environment as a prerequisite for moral living is indeed considered important by moral philosophers. For example, Kohlberg stresses that if moral education is to be effective at all, it must be the kind of 'education for a *just society*'. According to Kohlberg (1980: 464, 476), the aim of civic education "requires experiences of active social participation as well as the learning of analytic understandings, of government, and the moral discussion of legal and political issues." And the basic 'problem' of disadvantaged street youth is that "they have no sense of power and participation in the wider organized society". Kohlberg further stresses that only through the experience of participating in a just society can "children learn to respect general and impartial rules and to be concerned about collective goals."

The problems with moral education without a favourable society are propounded in an alarming way by Niebuhr in his book *Moral Man and Immoral Society*. Niebuhr (1960: 276-7) asserts that moral education in an immoral society is totally futile. In the final chapter, he says:

> But the tendencies of an industrial era are in a definite direction. They tend to aggravate the injustices from which men have perennially suffered. ... In such a situation all the highest ideals and tenderest emotions which men have felt all through the ages, when they became conscious of their heritage and possible destiny as human beings, will seem from our perspective to be something of a luxury. They will be under a moral disadvantage, because they appear as a luxury. ... We live in an age in which personal moral idealism is easily accused of hypocrisy and frequently deserves it. It is an age in which honesty is possible only when it skirts the edges of cynicism. All this is rather tragic.

Niebuhr's lament about the difficulty of being moral in an immoral society deserves much of our attention today. This is because unless schools demonstrate to students that they are moral communities, and unless school principals and teachers can demonstrate to students that they are good examples of the moral community, moral living will be a *luxury*. To promote a favourable environment for moral living, educationalists begin to propose a 'just community approach' to moral education. For example, Kohlberg has experimented on a 'just community' school, and Thomas (1990) calls for building the school as a 'moral learning community'. To quote Kohlberg (1970: 66-7):

> Martin Luther King and Socrates as examples of moral educators suggest that while the bag of virtues encapsulated the need for moral improvement of the children, a genuine concern about the growth of justice in the child implies a similar concern for the growth of justice in the society. This is the implicit basis of Kozol's challenging the moral authority of a passive teacher in a ghetto school. I do not mean to imply by this that true moral education is a matter of political indoctrination of the young in the name of reform. Rather, I am arguing that the only constitutionally legitimate form of moral education in the schools is the teaching of justice and that the teaching of justice in the schools requires just schools.

### *The need for reflection and dialogue*

The second implication of Mencius's view of human nature is that the process of education should focus on reflection and dialogue. Since human nature is endowed with seeds of virtue, the task of the educators is to nurture these seeds so that they can grow. The best way to nurture them is to encourage students to reflect upon what is good in their nature. The more one reflects upon it the more one can "hold on to it and it will remain." If one "lets go of it, it will disappear." (Lau 1970: 165). Another way to provide moral education is through dialogue. Dialogue as a way of teaching is actually not clearly proposed in *Mencius*, but the whole book is in fact a record of dialogue; and, Mencius and Confucius are both famous for adopting dialogue as a way of teaching. While mentioning the significance of reflection and dialogue in moral instruction, it is important to stress that the role of the teacher is to encourage the students to discover the good nature within themselves, which is 'already there as seeds of virtue'. In this view, the encouragement of reflection and dialogue is based on the belief that the students possess something good in themselves. This entails trust, respect, and encouragement in the whole process of reflection and dialogue.

Mencius's conception of seeds of virtue and emphasis on reflection and dialogue have sometimes been considered Platonic. Plato held that every one possesses certain 'ideas' which are part of, or the reflection of, the perfect idea beyond this imperfect world. Human beings therefore possess intrinsic 'seeds of knowledge', though imperfect. In such circumstances, the role of the educator is not to impart knowledge upon the students, which is in fact not necessary at all. The major role of the educator is to nurture or induce what is already inside the students. This approach to teaching has been regarded as the 'insight model' (Scheffler 1967: 124-9). On this point, both Mencius of the East and Plato of the West are the proponents of the 'insight model' of moral education. This insight model is built on trust and respect of the students.

## *The need for self-regulation*

The third implication which is indeed an elaboration of the second is that in moral education, children should be given an opportunity to regulate their own behaviour. Self-regulation is actually considered an important virtue by Confucius. According to Confucius, a man should regulate himself first, after that he could regulate his family, then govern the state and finally lead the world to peace.

It is worth citing an experiment in the West, namely, Neill's Summerhill. Neill established Summerhill mainly based on his assumption that children are innately wise and realistic. If left to themselves without adult suggestion of any kind, they will develop as far as they are capable of developing. Moreover, Neill believes that happiness is the aim of life, and therefore redefined success as the ability to work joyfully and live positively. Here, he has made a significant contribution to distinguishing between success in life and success in studies or career (see Barrow 1978: 68-71).

Based on these assumptions, Neill in his school allowed the whole school community to decide on regulations and rules. In this way, every one in the school, including staff and student, was obliged to observe the rules. Surprisingly, there was a high degree of self-regulation. The key, therefore, seems to be whether the students could be trusted to observe the rules or not. If they are labelled as rebellious, they will become rebellious. In addition to the Summerhill experiment, there are other similar experiments elsewhere, such as Japan and Taiwan, with good records of success.

In contrast to Mencius, Xunzi holds the view that human nature is evil. The challenge to him is: how can a person with evil nature become good? His answer is simple. It is the very fact that people want to become good which testifies their evil nature. Xunzi says, "Man wishes to be good because his nature is evil. If a man is mediocre, he wishes to be important; if he is ugly, he wishes to be beautiful..." (Collected in Chai 1965). Then how can people learn to become good? Based on the assumption that "the nature of man is evil; his goodness is acquired", Xunzi suggests three solutions: the first one requires the study of the teaching of the sage-kings; the second requires the study of the rule of proper conduct (*li*); and the third requires good teachers to serve as role models for students to follow.

In sum, those who take the view that human nature is evil tend to impose rules to be observed. It is lack of trust that requires people to be checked by rules, and this may further require a system of reward and punishment. Though a belief in the evil nature of human beings may be a realistic option, a system based on mistrust can be detrimental to the development of a child, as s/he is not being regarded as a person worth to be trusted. What is more, s/he will be socialised into a world of mistrust. However, Xunzi's contribution is that clear principles of conduct and good examples of behaviour are equally important in the process of moral education.

The above discussion examines how conceptions of human nature may influence the process of moral an extreme view of human nature as have Mencius and Xunzi. However, judging from the implications generated, Xunzi. However, as from the implications generated, it becomes important for teachers of moral education to reflect on, and to be aware of, their implicit assumption of human nature, especially from the way they teach moral education. In practice, teachers may have a tendency to adopt a convenient way of teaching, i.e. emphasising rules and the observation of rules. However, the problem is that it is easy to impose rules but not easy at all to observe rules. This may lead to serious negative effects, as not only will students cast doubt on the validity of the rules but they will not put their trust in those who impose the rules. This will lead children into a world of mistrust. Having to be checked against by rules, they will not trust themselves. Since they cannot see good models, they cannot trust the rules and the rulers.

## A Reconsideration of the Modelling and Identification Approach

As far as moral living is concerned, modelling and identification should be seen as two crucial elements in moral education. As Fouts says, modelling and identification are flexible and less likely to be hypocritical. For example, to teach children the significance of love, it is more important to let them experience love than to *reason* about love. This also explains why affective development is important in education for moral living.

However, there can be potential problems with over-emphasising modelling. Weber has identified three types of authority which can be used to examine moral authority in education. These are traditional authority, legal-rational authority and charismatic authority. The first type of authority is based on tradition such as kingship. The second type is based on expertise, such as that of lawyers and doctors. The third type is based on personal character. If modelling is also focused on a teacher's personal character, there can be an inclination towards charismatic authority. Charismatic leadership is attractive and convenient. However, the inherent danger is that it is prone to an indoctrination approach. Since the students admire the teacher, they will emulate the teacher in many respects or even in every respect. Since the teacher knows that his/her students will model him/her, it may be tempting for the teacher to manipulate students' thinking and emotions. As Peters (1973: 55) says:

> ... children tend to copy and to identify with authority figures whom they admire. This is, in evolutionary terms, one of the most potent mechanisms that the human race has developed for the transmission of culture ... The use of this mechanism has, of course, its dangers. Many teachers, in their enjoyment of the feeling of power which such admiration gives them, may prolong this period of subservience. Alternatively they may use this vantage point to pontificate or indoctrinate.

There can be yet another danger. If, because of one's limitations and weaknesses, the teacher has committed serious mistakes, the disappointment, shock and mistrust thus generated among students may become very difficult to be recovered. Hence, although it is good for the students to have a good model, it is equally dangerous to have a good model as no one is perfect. In this way, the modelling approach runs the risk of leading students to disappointment and disenchantment and thus a loss of trust towards ideal personality.

### *A provisional model of moral living*

To supplement the limitations of modelling, the concept of provisional authority is very significant (Peters 1973: 48). Teachers should from the very beginning make it clear that they are only provisional models as a contrast to 'end models'. They have to be bold enough to admit their limitations and weaknesses. They should be humble enough to let the students know that both the teachers and the students are working together to construct a proper model of behaviour on which a better society can be built. They should encourage their students to develop their own core value systems on which they can define their own personal worth, and develop relationships with other people in society. Awareness of the need to build a core value system is significant as every one is to a certain extent influenced by their own implicit philosophy of life. To become aware of this is to encourage one to be self-consistent. If one can becomes self-consistent, one will become autonomous, knowing why one chooses to act in a certain way, and is willing to bear responsibility of one's own action.

## Conclusion

This paper begins with the significance of moral living as an emphasis of moral education, and points out two central issues that may have strong implications for the process of moral education. In philosophical terms, views on human nature may have strong implications for approaches to education. In practical terms, modelling and identification are significant in demonstrating a moral life. From the above philosophical considerations, three types of needs are identified as essential for the practice of moral living. First, there is a need for a just community, without which moral living becomes a *luxury* and is meaningless to students. Second, there is a need for emphasising reflection and dialogue in the process of moral education. Such an emphasis is necessary because the students are the subjects, rather than objects, in moral living. They are the ones to determine what to do and not to do for themselves and for the society. Third, there is a need for emphasising self-regulation. It is through this emphasis that the students become trust-worthy as moral beings, and that self initiatives in moral living can be encouraged. In addition to suggesting the significance of modelling and identification in the practice of moral living, the inherent danger of modelling is also pointed out. The danger mainly resides in the fact that even the best model makes mistakes. It is therefore more important to promote the concept of provisional model. The notion of provisional model suggests that every one, including the teacher, is subject to errors, and that everyone, including the student, should have a role to play in the path of moral learning.

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# School Children Suicide in Hong Kong 9/91-3/93

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This study examines the 40 fatal suicides committed by school children aged 10-19 in Hong Kong from September 1991 to March 1993. There were 22 girls and 18 boys; 21 children in the age group 10-14 and 19 in the age group 15-19. 24 of the 40 cases were students of Form 3 or below. According to district distribution, 19 cases were found in Kowloon, 14 in the New Territories and 7 on Hong Kong Island. The number of fatal suicides reached a peak in the middle of the week. Statistical analysis shows that the school children fatal suicide rate is increasing slightly with time and that girls of the age group 15-19 has the largest rate of increase.

## 香港學童自殺的統計分析 1991年9月至1993年3月

[illegible]

## Introduction

There were a few studies on teenage suicides in Hong Kong. A recent study by Hau (1993) found that among the adolescent (in the age group 10-24), the suicide rate was not particularly high during the period 1971-1990. Some earlier studies on attempted suicides in Hong Kong were reported in Chiu (1988) and Chung et al. (1987), which examined 67 attempted suicides recorded in Queen Mary Hospital in the period between January 1980 and December 1984. The findings did not suggest a rising trend of teenage suicide in the period. Teenage suicide has been noted as a serious social problem recently. A rise in the teenage suicide rate in 1992 was observed in a recent report by Yip and Yu (1993); the mean age of the suicide deaths in the age group 10-19 was 18 in 1982 whereas the mean age was 15 years in 1992. In this paper I attempt to give an updated trend of teenage/school children suicide in Hong Kong. Some graphical methods are employed to give a visual impression of the distribution of the fatal cases. A more formal testing procedure of the trend is introduced. The aim of this paper is two fold:

(a) to give an account of the fatal cases that occurred between September 1991 to March 1993, providing information about age, school class, sex and geographical distribution; and
(b) to examine any particular features of the fatal cases based on the interarrival time of the cases, for example, the pattern of occurrence, trend or some other systematic features in the rate of occurrence.

Researchers of children suicide commonly use yearly data to detect increase. However, suicide data can be treated differently and analysed in the form of point events occurring in time. Statistical procedures for this sort of analysis have been discussed by Cox and Lewis (1966), Brown (1972), and others. The statistical analysis of the data can be performed on the interarrival times of the cases. It is not the concern of this paper to deal with the technicalities of such analysis, but it is useful to know that alternative procedures are available in this field of study.[1]

## Method

In this study 40 fatal cases of suicide in the periodSeptember 1991 to March 1993 were examined. All of the cases were recorded in the Special Education Unit of the Hong Kong Education Department. They consisit of primary and secondary school children who committed a fatal suicidal event during the period. The period was chosen mainly because of the availability of data from the Education Department. Data before 1991 were not complete because cases were reported to the Education Department in a sporadic manner. Data have become more systematically kept since September 1991. "Teenage suicide" rather than "school children suicide" is the preferred term as suggested by the Advisory Committee on School Guidance and Support Service (1993). However, since all the fatal cases in this study were school children, they are referred to as school children suicides in this paper.

## Results

### *Subjects*

There were altogether 40 school children in this study. A breakdown of age and sex is given in Table 1. There were 18 boys and 22 girls, giving a ratio of

1 to 1.22. (The estimated male to female ratio was about 1.3 to 1 for the general population, and about the same for adolescents in the period 1981-1990) (Hui, 1993). 21 cases of suicide (about 50%) were committed by children below the age of 14. The distribution of the cases among age groups and sex types seems to be independent. The $\chi^2$ value is 0.973, which is not significant.

Table 1: Number of fatal cases by age groups and sex in the period of 9/1/91-3/31/93

| Age-group | Female | Male | Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| 10 to 14 | 10 | 11 | 21 |
| 15 to 19 | 12 | 7 | 19 |
| Total | 22 | 18 | 40 |

### *District Distribution*

Table 2 gives the district distribution. There were 19 and 14 fatal suicides found in Kowloon and the New Territories respectively, and Hong Kong Island had the 7 cases. Wong Tai Sin and Kowloon City are the 'worst hit' areas. The Shatin New Town attracts concern because of the recent rise. There were no cases in Hong Kong South and Yau Tsim during period. After adjustment by the district's teenage population size, the districts Wong Tai Sin, North New Territories and Kowloon City were identified as the districts with the highest suicide rate in the Territory. Yip and Yu (1993) points out that the suicide rates in the new towns, for example, Tuen Mun, Shatin have been on the increase in recent years.

Table 2: Distribution of the fatal cases by Districts by School Forms

| | Primary 4-6 | Secondary 1-3 | Secondary 4-5 | Overall |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Central & Western | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Wan Chai | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Eastern | 0 | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| Southern | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| HK Sub-total | 0 | 2 | 4 | 6 |
| Yau Tsim | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Mongkok | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Kowloon City | 0 | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| Sham Shui Po | 0 | 2 | 0 | 2 |
| Kwun Tong | 3 | 1 | 2 | 6 |
| Wong Tai Sin | 1 | 2 | 3 | 6 |
| KLN Sub-total | 4 | 8 | [illegible] | 19 |
| Tsuen Wan & Kwai Tsing | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 |
| Tuen Mun | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 |
| Yuen Long | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 |
| North | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 |
| Tai Po | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| Shatin | 0 | 0 | 4 | 4 |
| N.T. Sub-total | 4 | 5 | 5 | 14 |
| Sai Kung | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Islands | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Not Known | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Total | 8 | 15 | 16 | 40 |

### *Days of Week Distribution*

A days of week distribution of the suicide cases is given in Table 3. The distribution of the cases seems to be evenly distributed. It has a $\chi^2$ value 4.1, which is not significant. There were more cases in the middle of the week. Sunday had the least number of cases.

Table 3: Distribution in the days of week of the fatal suicide

| Sex | Mon | Tue | Wed | Thu | Fri | Sat | Sun | Total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| M | 3 | 1 | 5 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 1 | 18 |
| F | 1 | 4 | 2 | 6 | 2 | 5 | 2 | 22 |
| Total | 4 | 5 | 7 | 9 | 6 | 6 | 3 | 40 |

### *Testing for trend*

First, a simple description of the suicide data is presented in this section with graphs to show the grosser features of the data and also for checking on the assumptions on which more formal methods of analysis are based. Second, a more formal statistical treatment to this sort of data is given. The details can be found in the Appendix.

Table 4 shows the 40 time intervals between successive suicidal cases during the period of study. The measurement is in days, and zeros indicate cases occuring on the same day. There was one fatal case on September 1, 1991. I denote the observed intervals between successive events by $x_1, x_2, \ldots$ Let $t_r$ be the time of occurrence of the $r$th event from the start of the period and these times are obtained by forming cumulative sums of the $x_i$'s, i.e. $t_1 = x_1$, $t_2 = t_1 + x_2$, ..., $t_r = t_{r-1} + x_r$. I denote the total period of observation by $r$. Figure 1 gives the cumulative plot of the total numbers of attempted cases to have occurred at or before $t$, against $t$. For each event, the plot jumps one upwards. An important property is that the slope of the line joining any two points on the plot is the average number of events per unit time for that period. The cumulative plot is useful because it gives us an idea of the distribution of the cases in a given time span.

Table 4: The interrarrival times of the fatal cases between 9/1/91-3/31/93

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 76 | 0 | 4 | 10 | 11 | 24 | 38 |
| 12 | 7 | 5 | 7 | 10 | 20 | 13 | 14 |
| 29 | 8 | 18 | 26 | 18 | 39 | 12 | 13 |
| 6 | 8 | 3 | 0 | 22 | 4 | 6 | 25 |
| 3 | 1 | 2 | 9 | 31 | 14 | 5 | 21 |

(It should be read from left to right)

Figure 1 shows that the slope in the later stage is steeper than earlier. The cumulative plot is subdivided into two by age group and by sex. Figures 2a and 2b give the cumulative plots of the attempted cases for the age groups 10-14 and 15-19, male and female respectively.

Figure 1: The cumulative plot of the fatal cases in the period of 9/1/91-3/31/93

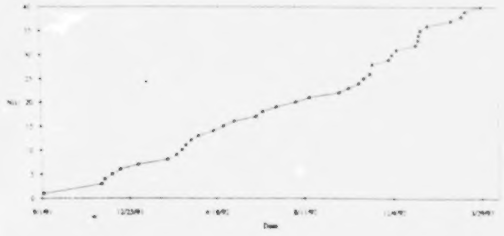


Figure 2a shows that the cumulative plot of the age group 10-14 is always above the plot of the age group 15-19 during the period. However, the rate of change for the age group 15-19 is steeper than the age group 10-14, especially in the later period.

Figure 2a: The cumulative plot of the fatal cases of the age groups 10-14 and 15-19

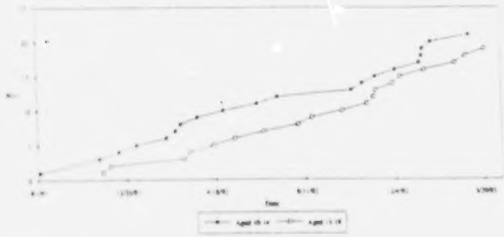
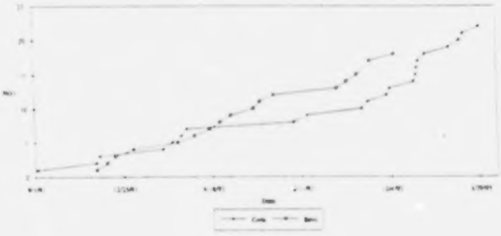


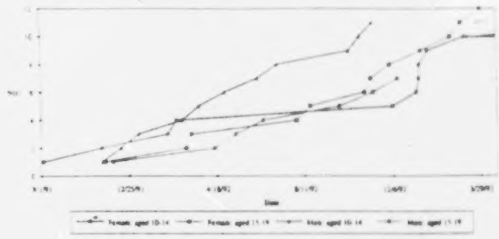
Figure 2b shows that the total number of attempted cases of girls was smaller than the boys before 1993. However, more female cases have occurred since January 1993. The rate of change for the girls has recently become higher than that for the boys.

Figure 2b: The cumulative plot of the fatal cases by sex



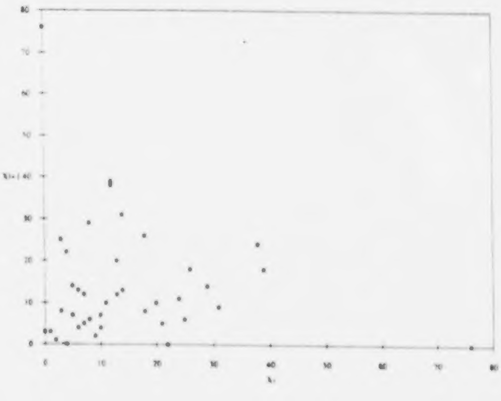
The cumulative plot in Figure 1 is further subdivided into four cumulative plots as shown in Figure 3, namely girls aged 10-14, girls aged 15-19, boys aged 10-14, and boys aged 15-19 respectively. The group of girls aged 15-19 comprised the largest number of cases among the four groups by the end of March 1993. The rate of change was more obvious for the groups of girls aged 15-19 and 10-14. Also, there were no male cases from January 1993 to the end of March 1993.

Figure 3: The cumulative plot of the fatal cases by sex by age groups



The serial correlation between two successive intervals between suicides is investigated graphically in Figure 4, where $x_{i+1}$ is plotted against $x_i$, the interarrival times. The resulting scatter diagram shows that the allocation of points were quite random.

Figure 4: Serial correlation between adjacent intervals of the fatal suicide events



In Table 4, the correlation coefficient $r$, which measures the dependence between the successive events between suicides gives the value $r = -0.1437$ and $t$-value $= -0.9991$ which is not significant at 10%. This implies that there is no significant relationship between the successive times. It seems that there is no case for the clustering or clumping phenomenon. In a separate study on the attempted suicide cases, however, the clustering phenomenon is very significant (see Yip 1993).

A time-dependent Poisson process is used to test for the trend of suicide. The details are given in the Appendix. Testing for the trend of all the suicide cases gives the value 1.34, which is not significant at 5%. The $p$-value is about 0.1. This implies that the intensity is increasing slightly with time. A further breakdown of the trend test of the cases by age groups and sex are given in Table 5a and Table 5b. Table 5a shows that suicidal cases among the group of girls aged 15-19 are more serious than others. The suicide rate is on an increasing trend. Table 5b gives the trend test results for the four groups. It shows that the group of girls aged 15-19 had the largest $\beta$ value and it is significant at 2.5%.

Table 5a: Analysis for the suicide cases assuming $\lambda(t) = e^{\alpha + t\beta}$ by age group or sex

| Type | $H_0$: $\beta = 0$ | $\hat{\beta}$ | $e^{\hat{\beta} t}$ ($t = 604$) | $\hat{\alpha}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Total | 1.34* | 0.00129 (0.0001967) | 2.10 | −3.057 |
| 10-14 (21) | 0.168 | 0.00022 (0.001317) | 1.14 | −3.37 |
| 15-19 (19) | 1.658** | 0.00253 (0.001457) | 4.30 | −4.222 |
| Girls (22) | 2.159** | 0.002904 (0.001375) | 5.30 | −4.21 |
| Boys (18) | −0.388 | 0.00055 (0.001426) | 0.727 | −3.308 |

Table 5b: Analysis for the suicide case assuming $\lambda(t) = e^{\alpha + t\beta}$ by age group and sex

| Type | $H_0$: $\beta = 0$ | $\hat{\beta}$ | $e^{\hat{\beta}}$ | $\hat{\alpha}$ |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| girls aged 10-14 (10) | 1.008 | 0.00196 (0.001967) | 3.09 | −4.667 |
| boys aged 10-14 (11) | −0.728 | 0.00013 (0.001846) | 0.46 | −3.395 |
| girls aged 15-19 (12) | 2.003** | 0.00375 (0.001941) | 8.61 | −5.33 |
| boys aged 15-19 (7) | 0.290 | 0.00660 (0.002289) | 1.46 | −4.602 |

- Numbers in brackets represent the standard error of the estimate.
- The superscript * represent significant at 10%.
  The superscript ** represent significant at 5%.

## Discussion

The trend test is to detect the rate of change over time. If there were not many cases in an earlier period while a number of cases occurred recently, the $\beta$ value would be shown to be positive and highly significant. On the other hand, if there were many cases in the earlier period and a few recently, the $\beta$ value would be shown to be negative, which indicates a decreasing trend. It is the distribution of the events over the time span that determines the $\beta$ value rather than the total number alone. The seasonal fluctuation of fatal cases is another investigation focus; it is being examined in a separate study.

Since there were a number of suicide cases among the group of girls aged 15-19 occurring recently, the rate of change for the group of girls aged 15-19 was shown to be significant. A slightly rising trend of teenage suicide has been detected. It seems that girls are more vulnerable than boys. If we consider the total number of cases, the average age of the cases in this study was younger than that of the cases of previous years. More than 60% of all the cases were below the age of 15.

The is a mainly descriptive paper which presents statistical findings. I would be very naive if I pretended to be an expert in education or psychology and tried to provide explanations for every finding of the study. However, I cannot resist an attempt to offer some speculative comments, which I hope will serve the purpose of stimulating more thoughts on issue of school children suicide. These comments/speculations, each of which warrants further investigation, are as follows:

1. The clustering phenomenon among the fatal cases is not statistically significant. The time between the successive events are independent, which implies that the suicide of one child does not necessarily trigger off another. However, if we combine the examination of attempted suicide cases with that of fatal cases which occurred in the same period of time, the clustering phenomenon is significant. It is also important to note that some of the attempted cases were bona fide while others were only attention seeking attempts.

   That some belief conveyed by the mass media triggers off the suicide events resulting in the clustering phenomenon is only unsupported by the fatal data.

2. The rising trend of committing suicide is greater for girls than boys. The attempted cases have similar characteristics (See Yip, 1993). Is there any implication of gender bias in education and social expectations, which leads to more girls committing suicide? Do girls have more relationship problems than boys or are there some other factors leading to this phenomenon?

3. There were more cases in the middle of the week. Was it because the students experienced more stress and tension during weekdays rather than weekends? Also, family members are usually around during the weekend and make it more difficult to commit suicide without being noticed.

4. More than 60% of the cases are below aged 15. Could there be a link between school children suicide and the 9-year compulsory schooling? Does the schooling system have a negative effect on the development of children who have no interest in school? Do those who do not perform well in their school work feel very distressed about their academic performance? Do they feel so distressed that they want to end their lives?

5. It might be interesting to explore any special characteristics of the districts with higher suicide rates, for example, Tuen Mun, Wong Tai Sin and Shatin. The general education level of the population, resident conditions, the level of juvenile delinquency, the banding of the schools etc. might be the possible environmental factors leading to the increase of the suicide rate.

It is distressing to see teenagers take their lives at such a young age. There is an urgent need for a systematic and thorough investigation of the suicide cases. The aim of the paper is to provide some information and some statistical analysis which those concerned about education for children may not find in the existing literature. Proper use of statistical analysis of suicide data certainly helps to detect problems much earlier. The high risk group can be identified so that effective measures could be taken. The result of the present study hopefully provides some insights on the teenage suicide problem, and I hope other researchers who have the appropriate expertise will research into the issues raised by this study.

## Appendix

The Appendix is given here for the completeness of the paper and to the readers who are interested in the derivation of the results in Table 5a and 5b.

If the process is observed over a fixed time period $(0, \tau)$, where $\tau$ is the end time of the study period and if events occur at $(t_1, \ldots, t_n)$, where $t_n$ is the time of the $n$th events, then the likelihood function assuming a time dependent Poisson process is

$$L = \left[\prod_{i=1}^{n} \lambda(t_i) \exp\left(-\int_{t_{i-1}}^{t_i} \lambda(u)du\right)\right] \exp\left(-\int_{t_n}^{\tau} \lambda(u)du\right)$$
$$= \left(\prod_{i=1}^{n} \lambda(t_i)\right) \exp\left(-\int_0^{\tau} \lambda(u)du\right).$$

A simple model that allows for a monotone trend in the intensity function is that for which $\lambda(t) = \exp(\alpha + \beta t)$. There are, of course, other models with this property, but this one provides a convenient place to start. Following (1) the likelihood function is

$$L(\alpha, \beta) = \exp\left(n\alpha + \beta \sum_{i=1}^{n} t_i - \frac{e^{\alpha}(e^{\beta\tau} - 1)}{\beta}\right)$$

where $t_1 < \quad < t_n$ are the times at which failures occur for a given plane. It can be shown that the maximum likelihood estimate $\hat{\alpha}$ and $\hat{\beta}$ can be found from the equations

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} t_i + \frac{n}{\beta} - \frac{n\tau}{1 - e^{-\beta\tau}} = 0$$
$$e^{\alpha} = \frac{n\beta}{e^{\beta\tau} - 1}$$

One problem of much interest is to test the null hypothesis $H_0 : \beta = 0$, since under $H_0$ the process is a Poisson process, which implies the interarrival between the events are independent and identifically distributed. The test statistic for the trend is given as follows:

$$U = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} t_i - \frac{1}{2}n\tau\right) \Big/ \tau\left(\frac{n}{12}\right)^{1/2}$$

A goodness of fit test has been done and it has been found that the model described here provided a sufficient fit for the data given in Table 4. Details can be found in Cox and Lewis (1966) and Kalbfleisch and Prentice (1980).

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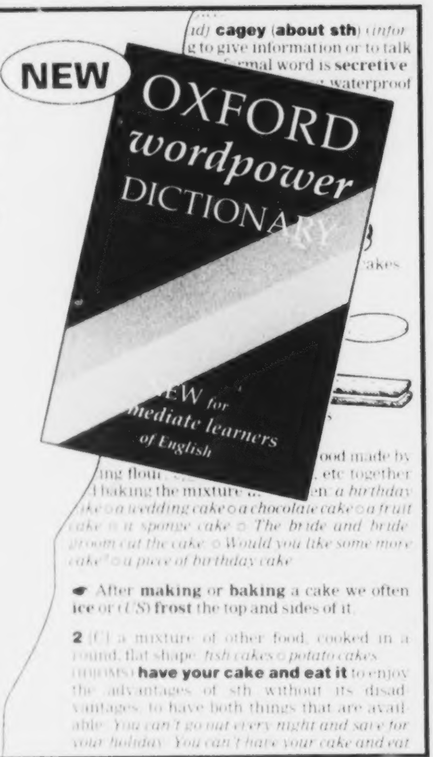

…id) **cagey** (**about sth**) (infor…
…g to give information or to talk
…rmal word is **secretive**
…waterproof

…akes

…ood made by
…ing flou… …, etc together
…I baking the mixture … …en: *a birthday …ake ○ a wedding cake ○ a chocolate cake ○ a fruit cake ○ a sponge cake ○ The bride and bride groom cut the cake. ○ Would you like some more cake? ○ a piece of birthday cake*

☛ After **making** or **baking** a cake we often **ice** or (*US*) **frost** the top and sides of it.

**2** [C] a mixture of other food, cooked in a round, flat shape: *fish cakes ○ potato cakes*
(IDIOMS) **have your cake and eat it** to enjoy the advantages of sth without its disadvantages; to have both things that are available: *You can't go out every night and save for your holiday. You can't have your cake and eat*

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*用英文撰寫

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# New Horizons

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# 教學質素及教師專業——對香港一個職業羣的反思[1]

盧乃桂

香港中文大學

本文嘗試闡釋教學質素的含義，並指出學術界及專業教育工作者對教學質素的看法，常因不同的認識角度和背景而有所不同。在本港多數的學校裏，教學質素常與眾多的指標其中一個重要指標掛鈎；因此，教學質素常被等同於學生的考試成績。作爲教學質素的保證人和學校教育改革的仲裁者與執行者，教師自身的專業質素往往決定改革的成敗。教師羣的專業發展，及其自主性和主動性，又將決定教師能在教學質素保證和學校教育改革可能扮演的角色。本文以曾榮光所提出的一個有關專業發展的認識架構，指出教師羣的專業發展實要靠其專業知識如何能被制度化，及被置於發展過程的中心地位。本文以三項有關教師教育和教師專業發展的政策爲例，帶出其實施情況，並肯定本港教師羣的專業發展過程定非坦途。

## Quality in Teaching and the Teaching Profession: Reflection on an Occupational Group in Hong Kong

This paper attempts to define the meaning of quality in teaching, and underlines the diversity of views among scholars and professional educators who approach the concept from varying perspectives because they also function in different work contexts. In the majority of schools in Hong Kong, quality in teaching is being linked with only one important indicator, the examination results of students. As guarantors of quality in teaching as well as arbitrators and executors of school reform, teachers often determine the outcome of reform. The professionalization of teachers, and the degree of autonomy and initiative of teachers in turn determine their possible role in quality guarantee and school reform. This paper uses a theoretical framework established by W.K. Tsang of the Chinese University of Hong Kong to facilitate understanding of issues concerning the professionalization of teachers. It points out that the professionalization of teachers is dependent on the institutionalization of professional knowledge, and how professional knowledge is being treated as a central concern. By using the implementation of three recent policy initiatives as examples, it confirms that the road ahead for the professionalization of Hong Kong teachers may not be a smooth one.

## 引言

中外學者爲了探討教學質素和教師專業這兩大教育概念的本質和通性原則，不知花了多少時間和心血（例如，Astin, 1991; Beeby, 1966; Benezet, 1973; Bogue, 1985; Bogue & Saunders, 1992; Carnegie Commission for Higher Education, 1968; Clark et al, 1984; Crosby, 1979, 1984; Garvin, 1988; Gray, 1990; Lacey, 1970; Mayhew et al, 1990; Mortimore, 1992; Mortimore & Stone, 1991; OECD 1989; Ross and Mahlck, 1990; Young et al, 1983）。學者提出的觀點與角度就如茫茫大海，漫無邊際；又如孩子不斷搖玩的萬花筒，變化不定。

本文將嘗試闡釋教學質素的含義，指出在本港多數的學校裏，教學質素常被等同於學生的考試成績。作爲教學質素的保證人和學校教育改革的仲裁者與執行者，教師自身的專業質素往往決定改革的成敗。教師羣的專業發展，及其自主性和主動性，又將決定教師在教學質素保證和學校教育改革可能扮演的角色。

## 學校教育質素與教學質素

學校教育質素和教學質素是相輔相承的概念。作者的理解是學校教育質素的涵蓋面較廣，因其指社會通過學校所提供的教育的質素，而探求的範疇植根於學校作爲一整體的觀念上。教學質素的涵蓋面較窄，因其所指的，乃學校通過校長和教師所提供的教學質素，而探求的範疇多以校內的課堂和課堂以外的活動爲基礎。

要爲教學質素下任何定義，就像一個小孩子要在薄冰上溜冰嬉戲，但又不知危險。要知道，綜觀各方不斷的努力，學者對教學質素所能達到的共識是：它是一個模糊的觀念。若我們將教學質素放置於一個「輸入－過程－產出」的連續體，試圖跟據三者找出一些有關教學質素的指標，我們不難從量與質的角度找到輕重不一的三十至四十個指標，如：量化輸入指標－學生家

境、校內學生密度、用於每個學生的費用；質化輸入指標－學生自我觀、學生學習態度、教師期望；量化過程指標－教師學歷和教學經驗、教師備課時間、課外活動項目、學生人數、師生比例；質化過程指標－教師教學態度、教學實踐方法、學校教學氣氛、學生學習態度、家長參與；量化產出指標－畢業率、輟學率、學生考試成績、學生出路；質化產出指標－學生和家長的滿意程度、教師士氣等。

作者曾向一些教學專家請教，希望他們能釐清有關教學質素的指標，結果雖然沒有脫離應考慮的指標，但亦是莫衷一是。又綜觀世界各地學者對教學質素的認識－有謂要加強學生對本土文化的認識，或培養學生有批判思考的能力，越近這些目標，越有質素。教學質素其實是與我們認爲是最重要的教育價值有著密切關係的。

任何人要爲教學質素下定義，甚至要爲它說話，都要冒 Kahlil Gibran 的寓言裏第四隻青蛙所冒的危險。Gibran 的寓言以知識爲旨，以四隻青蛙坐在一條浮在河面上的木頭爲始，內容是有關一個到底是木頭，還是河流在移動的辯論。

第一隻青蛙認爲牠們坐著的木頭有別於在水中漂流的其他木塊，因爲前者有栩栩如生的動感。第二隻青蛙卻認爲此木和彼木也不過是一樣，其實是水在流著。第三隻青蛙則認爲動感乃在於心靈的演繹。第四隻青蛙想了片刻，謂：「你們的每一個說法都是對的，沒有一個說法是錯的。」說畢，第四隻青蛙被踢進河裏，因爲牠沒有讓任何同伴擁有唯一的眞理。

爲了要有一個立論基礎，作者只好冒險地把教學質素定義爲：就每一所學校或每一個教師所釐定的教學目標達致最好的結果；這些教學目標固然要包括培養讀、寫、算的能力、獨立思考的能力、利他的價值觀和追求公義的傾向。

## 本港學校和教師對<br>教學質素的觀感

在過去，爲了要使一些「質素」獲得保証，便釐定一些可以被量度的保証、一些可被滿足的要求。工商界有人認爲合乎要求（conformance to requirements）便是「質素」。爲某商品或服務釐清要求，其實是闡釋對該商品或服務的期望，合乎要求便是合乎期望，便算是有質素了（Crosby, 1979, cited in Mayhew, 1990, p.26）。在教育界，我們對教學素有期望和要求，如適切的內容、充裕的準備、有效的方法、公平的考核和指向進步的結果。然而教育是一項公衆事業，服務對象是廣大的、學質能力上有很大差異的兒童和青少年，而他們的身份卻不只是消費者，而又是被考核的對象。因此之故，由期望所衍生出來的要求，尤其是由有關當局和機構頒布的要求，絕大多數也只不過是最低限度的要求。基於此，所謂「質素」並不一定有「卓越」（excellence）的含義，甚至有「平庸」（mediocre）的含義，從平庸進步至卓越是一艱辛的過程，要靠學校能訂立一套廣爲推崇的教學目標，更要靠師生能認同這些目標而努力地去滿足達致目標的種種要求。就這樣，在一個開放社會中，我們便有不同風格的學校，更有不同形式的「教學質素」了。

這種因應個別學校實際情況去闡釋「質素」的性質和指標，應有利於一種百花齊放的現象出現，各校旣可堅守各自的辦學宗旨，又可以朝一定目標發展教學工作。若我們嘗試訪問校長和教師，不難會發覺他們對教學質素的看法是多元化的。到底教學質素爲甚麼值得我們關心呢？有謂通事達理，有謂學以致用，有謂道德情操。教學質素又應如何衡量呢？有些校長和教師會以學校的聲譽，擇優招生和經濟實力來判斷教學質素；有些會以校風作指標；更有些會以照顧學生的生活和學習上的特殊需要爲主要的「自變項」。

作者曾接觸過的校長有數百，教師逾千。有一個可以說是爲大多數校長和教師認同的教學質素指標是學生的考試成績，尤其是學生的公開考試成績。校長和教師大概口裏不說，內心卻在吶喊，希望學生的成績好，或最少不會退步；一貫好的要艱苦地去守著，一貫不好的要焦急地去追上，因爲這才是「教學質素」的最可靠的指標啊！除了那幾十所老牌名校外，其他中、小學不斷地在考試的競道上爭先恐後。爲了能招到成績更好的學生，爲了學校的聲譽，不少學校無愧而荒誕地要高小的學生不斷地做學能測驗練習，提前爲高中生不斷地補課，爲試圖滿足一個教學質

素的產出指標—考試成績—而弄至「全民皆兵」的地步。有些學校更忘記了自己的辦學宗旨，忘記了適切的課程，因爲考試局的考試綱要才是眞正的「課程指引」。在本港的高等教育圈內，院校間的競爭也越來越激烈。最近，在大學及理工資助委員會的安排下比試了一次教師的研究成就；互相又要攀比收取第一志願生率。更有人在最近發表本港的「大學排名榜」，認爲對院校有正面的鼓勵作用，使人啼笑皆非。

## 教師作爲教學質素的保證人

領會教學質素的最眞實情境，莫如在正規教與學的場所，即課堂內的活動；較次要的是學校爲學生安排的各類活動。在課堂裏，教師應該是自己的主人，也是教學質素的保証人。教師的學養、態度、技巧都是教學質素的決定因素。相對於教師應具備的條件，校舍的新或舊，設施的先進或落後，藏書、電腦的多寡，都成爲次要的考慮。無怪乎學校或專上院校的經常費，大部份都是用於教學人員的工資方面。

我們珍惜教師的貢獻，委以教學質素保証的重任，對教師自然有一定的期望和要求。在此，我不會多費篇幅去討論教師應具備的專業條件，這個應留給各校校董會、校長和勢將成立的教師公會來闡釋。我要提出的是今後教學的改進和教育的改革，應以教師和他們的專業發展爲中心。

## 教師作爲學校教育改革的原動力

所有有關教育的改革，最後的仲裁者和執行者是教師。沒有教師的認同，就算政策是基於最善意的動機，最周詳的考慮，最有遠見的佈局，也難有成就。教師決定學校教育改革的成敗是不爭的事實。教師作爲改革的原動力卻是一個値得懷疑的動議，因爲就個人的觀察，教師的專業角色長期處於被動狀態。至今，雖有教師組織，如香港教師會、香港教育人員專業協會、香港教育工作者聯會等不斷的鼓勵和協助，香港現有的18,326位中、小、幼和特殊教育教師的角色仍然是被動的(Education Department., 1994, p.16)，教育改革的主動權似乎仍然在於決策者。在教師心目中，這些所謂「決策者」是抽象的、疏離的、有別於眞正在前線工作教師的權威。稍對香港政府運作有認識的人，都會把「決策者」等同於政府及其諮詢機構的成員。

在今年實施的兩項有關本港教育事業前途的改革措施中，可以清楚看到教師的被動角色。第一，香港教育學院的成立帶來四所教育學院和語文教育學院講師轉職的問題，最後出現工業行動。從專業自主性和勞資談判和協調的角度來看，講師們由始至今是處於一種被動的狀態。或許這可以歸因於講師們還沒有意識到他們和政府及教育學院應建立一種伙伴關係，甚至應有一種「主人翁」的心態。第二項改革措施的實踐是幼稚園教育的改革。在改革過程中，幼師的角色也完全是被動的。或許幼師自以爲自身缺乏討價能力。自從我當教育委員會學前教育工作小組主席開始，至港督發表其施政報告爲止，我和幼師的接觸只能在寶貴的三小時的「聚焦討論會」中領受。在短短十個月裏，我會見了政黨代表、工會代表、辦學團體代表、校長代表、關注團體代表，但沒有幼師主動地要求我親身聽聽他們的心聲、期望和理想。港督的施政報告廣發於民間，其中有關學前教育的政策只注意幼師的教育，卻沒有照顧幼師的薪酬和事業前途。但提出異議的，還是工會代表、政黨代表和關注團體代表。或許我讀報量不足，但我似乎沒有淸楚地聽到幼師集體地大聲嘆一口氣。除了一次示威行動外，有組織的、有策略性的討價行動卻沒有見到。

由被動的職業擘進步成爲教育改革的原動力，當然有相當漫長的路要走。綜觀世界各地教育改革的大趨勢，以教師爲本位的改革措施可謂層出不窮。近年英國的學校教育改革，尤其以學校爲本位的教師教育實驗，已肯定前線工作者對培植新一代教師的重要地位。在1980年代後期，美國的學校教育改革是以教師、大學學者、師訓專家的三結合來推動教師教育(Holmes Group 1986, 1990)，也同時試圖建立教師與教育研究者和教師與家長的伙伴關係。這種改革方案，更突顯出教師在教育改革的中心地位。

本港的教師要成爲教育改革的原動力，除了要考慮大趨勢所帶來的機會外，更要考慮如何能提高自已的專業地位。要提高自身的專業地位，

就應在一些最能表現一己專業能力的範疇下苦功，如在教學質素的闡釋和保證上力臻完善。

其實，保證教學質素只不過是對教師專業上要求的一個環節。教師專業的發展，繫於宏觀的社會公衆的信任和需求，也繫於微觀的專業知識的更新和運用。

## 本港教師羣的專業發展

專業是一個有機性的職業羣體，其工作是基於一套專業知識。香港中文大學教育學院講師曾榮光，曾參考美國學者 Eliot Freidson 提出有關專業知識的理解（1986），爲教師專業發展提出一個客觀的認識架構（曾，1992 a-j）。該架構包括有關教師專業的五種「制度化」取向：

1. 「專業知識制度化」是指專業知識建立成爲一套廣受尊重及具學術地位的知識。爲了爭取專業知識的學術地位和受尊重程度的提高，在大學成立專業學院、專業培訓學位化、通過研究驗證假設、通過出版散播新知識等，都是常被採用的手段。
2. 「專業工作環境制度化」是指專業知識被引領到工作環境內，反過來又讓工作環境成爲一個有利於專業知識的發揮、專業自主權和領導權確立的場所。由此衍生出來的，有「學人治校」和「內行領導」，政府的非干預政策，責任制等措施或期望。
3. 「專業內事業晉升階梯制度化」是指業內的晉升一方面要基於專業知識的掌握和專業培訓的資歷，而另一方面又要排斥非專業的晉升標準，如年資累積、世襲等，使晉升能更客觀地依賴與專業知識有密切關係的指標。
4. 「專業知識供應制度化」是指業內確立一套由行內人控制的評審專業知識水平和資歷的機制，工作範疇應包括培訓、入職資格和在職操守的評審。
5. 「專業知識需求的制度化」是指專業取得公衆對其專業知識和服務的信任，進而確認其服務的可靠性和必要性，即確立了公衆對服務的需求。惟有建立一個以專業知識爲主導的專業支配制度，教師專業才能眞正地發展起來，最後成立廣受社會公衆所尊重、信任和股求的專業羣體。曾榮光以西方醫學的專業發展爲成功例子，指其「能在現代化社會中，確立其專業服務成爲唯一處理生、死、疾病、健康問題的權威」（曾，1992a）。

教師專業的五種制度化取向發展的過程有賴教師這職業羣體不斷地拓展自己獨特的專業知識，並把這套專業知識牢固於工作領域內，務使其能在工作領域的不同層面制度化。

從保證教學質素的角度觀之，以上每一個取向都對教師專業發展工作有實際和深遠的影響。專業知識不受尊重，則談不上自身職業的專業化，更難有信心地進行教學。事業內的晉升不以專業知識的掌握和培訓的資歷爲指標，則整個機制將流於主觀，一難服衆，二難向社會大衆交待。業內沒有評審專業知識水平的客觀系統，更談不上專業資格認可和專業表現的監察。

## 有關政策的適切性和政策實施的問題

自1982年國際顧問團報告書發表以後（呂、韓、郭、雷，1982），教師和教師專業發展已成爲本港教育界持續關心的事。教育統籌委員會在其各份報告書中亦爲教師專業發展提出多向性的建議，至1992年，更有以教師專業爲主題的第五號報告書發表（教育統籌委員會，1992）。綜覽過去十二年的變遷，我們不得不承認教師是教育改革的主角之一。

如果我們用曾榮光提出的認識架構內的各個取向，分析香港政府在最近頒布的政策和政策的實施，也不難領悟出教師專業發展並非康莊坦途。在此，作者將其中三項取向，即「專業知識制度化」、「專業內事業晉升階梯制度化」和「專業知識供應制度化」作爲例據：

1. 如前述，「專業知識制度化」是指專業知識被建立成爲一套廣受尊重及具學術地位的知識。這裏除了指教育作爲一研習範疇，如何能提升在專上院校的地位外，更意含著專業知識建立和散播過程的多元化。在沒有絕對眞理的教育學範疇，多元化對教育的理論建設和實際運作都有一定的意義，在專業知識的散播過程中也有一定的作用。政府成立一

所單科性的香港教育學院，旨在讓它肩負本地教師教育重任。至於一所單科性的專上學院能否滿足本港教師教育的多元化要求，而又能否培養出學科根基穩固的教師確有待證明。綜觀世界各國的教師教育趨勢，教師教育的責任已明顯地落在綜合大學的肩膊上。例如台灣在今年已刻意地突破師範大學對教師教育的壟斷，讓有條件的綜合大學提供教師教育課程。在成立香港教育學院的同時，政府亦不應忘記，教統會在第五號報告書指出「多渠道、多層次」的教師教育的重要性。同類、同等的教師應出自不同種類的院校，只有這樣，我們才能保証在學校裏的教師不會出自同一個樣板，而他們的教學觀和解決問題的方法亦非如出一轍的。

2. 「業內晉升階梯的制度化」所指的晉升是根據專業知識的掌握和培訓的資歷而決定的。這也意含著學歷的重要性。在過去數星期裏，有關誰應在甚麼時候、用甚麼方法介定認可的學歷已經成了本港的頭條新聞(Veloo, 1994)。學歷認可這回事應待政客們玩完遊戲後，再由專業人仕來作分析和提出建議。有關晉升階梯制度化的問題還有一個副題，就是如何處理初入職，而學歷比大多數同事稍高的教師。這裏指的，是由教統會第五號報告書催生的初入職而有認可學位的小學教師。這批準學位教師現正在香港大學及香港中文大學接受職前教育與訓練。據了解，培訓課程是嚴謹和高水平的。至於他們將來可否在小學裏找到與學歷相符的教席，還要看有關當局如何有效地改進本地教師的聘任制度。

3. 在「專業知識供應制度化」的過程中，專業內須要確立一套由行內人控制的評審專業水平的機制。這取向不只與學歷認可的問題有密切的關係，更直接與專業自主權有關。1982發表的國際顧問團報告書已清楚說明有成立教師公會的必要。十二年後，我們所得到的是一個無案可議、苦求出路的專業操守議會。在我向議會成員的毅力和勇氣致敬的同時，我也要要求教師公會的成立。其實，公會的成立只不過是時間的問題。將來的公會應兼負專業操守的評審、資格的認可和爲教師註册訂定原則的重任。作爲一個旁觀者，我看到專業操守議會和成立不久的師訓與師資諮詢委員會在角色上的吻合：前者關心專業內成員的操守；後者的其中一大任務是資格認可，兩者的功能可整合於教師公會的工作裏。有了教師公會，政府可能担當的角色就是依據公會所訂立的原則繼續爲教師註册。

## 結語

以上所舉的例子，一方面說明教師專業要走的，是一條漫長的道路；另方面也說明現今所存在的問題是可以解決的。要解決問題，教師必須要主動，有一種主人翁的心態，又要有專業人仕的智慧，更要有寬大的胸襟。只有這樣，我們的教學質素才能得到保證，因爲我們需要有很多對自己有極高要求的教師。Bogue在他的*Enemies of Leadership*（*領袖的敵人*）一書裏曾說：

> 我們應能察覺到自己未能挑戰〔學生〕的才能。我們應能察覺到自己的教學已貶抑了生氣勃勃的意志。我們應察覺到課堂的氣氛已再沒有因使人振奮的智慧的碰撞而擦出火花。我們應察覺到自己對學生的傲慢態度是有負信任我們的人格和智慧的人所託。我們應察覺到自己的課程在欺騙學生，沒有讓他們的潛能得到發揮。（p.63〔作者譯〕）

只有具洞察力的教師才能察覺到以上所提出的問題。察覺到問題後還需要有專業知識才能謀求解決問題的方法。教師能解決教與學上的問題乃是教學質素的最佳保證。

## 注釋

[1] 本文原爲作者在一九九四年十月廿九日舉行的「教學質素及教師專業」研討會發表專題演講的講稿，由作者整理後成爲論文。該研討會乃香港教師會主辦的一九九四至九五年度全港教師週年教學研究大會。

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# 對教育改革中教育價值取向的思考

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中國大陸教育改革實踐迫切需要解決的問題是擇定正確的教育價值取向。新時期教育價值取向的確立要突破傳統模式，它不僅要注重教育的社會工具價值，而且要注重教育發展人性的價值。教育改革的成功有賴於人文主義教育思想的發揚。

**Educational Value Orientation in Educational Reform**

A pressing problem in the implementation of educational reform in China is the need to establish proper educational orientation. China would benefit from breakthroughs in value orientation which focus not only on the social, instrumental function of education but also on the role of edcuation in fostering human development. The success of educational reform that China badly needs today relies on the popularization of the ideology of humanistic education.

## 引言

我國近十多年的教育改革是伴隨着經濟體制、政治體制改革而出現的，但它主要是自上而下開展的。不少教育工作者，尤其是中小學教師，在沒有甚麼理論準備和心理準備下就要參與教育改革。同時，由於從事教育理論研究的人往往不諳教育實際，而從事教育實際操作的人則缺乏教育理論，理論與實踐之間存在着很大的鴻溝。這種理論與實踐失調的現象，爲我國教育改革造成極大障礙。

與此同時，我國教育改革的呼聲卻越來越大。一九九三年二月，中共中央、國務院印發的《中國教育改革和發展綱要》明確提出要加速教育改革和發展，催促教育工作者要有教育改革的緊迫感。可是教育改革要邁出新的步伐、跨入新的階段，必須解決上述的障礙問題。若仍依靠「摸着石頭過河」，教育改革絕不能深化。教育改革必須對教育的功能與目的作一番哲學思考，尤其是教育哲學的思考，回答教育改革應改甚麼、應如何改革等基本問題。

本文從教育改革的實踐出發，以廣州市小學教育改革爲背景，以個人經驗觀察爲基礎，從辯証否定的立場出發，討論教育改革實踐中的教育價值取向的問題。

## 教育改革需從教育價值取向的思考出發

教育改革的成效最終都是要在學校和教室裏接受檢驗的。經過一系列的單項改革、整體改革、素質教育之後，教育工作者的態度和行爲出現了甚麼變化？有甚麼改善和進步？學生作爲一個人，他們在學校裏發展得怎麼樣？教育改革的走向如何？從這些問題出發，我們可以看到教育改革面對着不少問題。

### 一、學生並非學習的主體

在教育改革中，屢屢強調學生要配合學校、配合教師完成教育改革任務。儘管「學生是學習的主體」這一提法已不再是甚麼新鮮名詞，而且在教育改革的論文和報告裏出現頻率頗高，但只流於口號而已，整體而言，並沒有實際深入人心，影響教育工作者的態度和行爲。在教室裏、在活動中，教師是導演，操縱着學生的課堂行爲；教師是主角，在教學中展現教學的技藝。相反，學生只是配角，總是隨着老師的思路走，是教師的追隨者而已。最常見的三種情形是：

1. 教師將教學內容琢磨得很透徹後再向學生逐一解釋。這是經典式的教學方法，其特點是在教研方面下的功夫很多、很深。但由於它是以「教」爲核心，其結果是注入式的教

學，學生主體性根本不能實現。

2. 教師在教學過程努力營造學生積極參與的教學氣氛，注重採用談話、討論形式展開教學，學生回答問題比較積極踴躍，課堂氣氛甚爲熱烈。然而我們往往發現教學的形式與內容並不統一。教學仍以教材爲主導，所有的學生必須適應教材，他們的思路仍是追隨教材和教師既定的模式。學生的獨立性、自發性、創造性等主體精神並沒有受到重視與培養。
3. 在小學教育中，教師較多以管束學生作爲教育的前提，利用紀律與權威約束學生的行爲，以便能順利完成「教書」的任務。因此，教師比較注重用劃一的要求規範學生的行爲，培養學生服從的習慣。學生的自律精神及個性發展等關鍵問題卻被忽略。

## 二、等級標籤形成學生薄弱的自我觀

如果說學生的個別差異在學校與教室裏有所反映，則只能反映在學生的學習成績及外在表現。學生按這些表現被分成優等生和中下生（差生）等類別。這些學生基本上都被貼上了標籤，他們在班級裏得到不同的地位與待遇。我曾嘗試去與一些中下生接近時，他周圍的同學總會在第一時間對我說：「他是個差生！」標籤效應強化了中下生的敵意、仇恨、內疚、不安等心態，致使他們在人格行爲上出現好打鬥破壞、欺小凌弱，或是沉默寡言、抑鬱自閉的傾向。這是今天校園中令教師最頭痛的事情。

一九九四年五月，我曾就自我觀念問題抽取3至6年級225名小學生進行調查，約41%的學生把自己描述爲：「一個失敗的人」、「微不足道的人」、「笨人」、「很不優良的人」，自我觀念非常低下和消極。約34%的學生從別人（教師、同學）那裏獲得否定性信息，認爲自己在老師和同學眼中是「壞學生」、「差生」、「蠢人」、「不起眼的小人物」、「無能的人」等。自我觀念是一個人立身處世的重要支點，它的發展狀況直接影響學生良好個性與健康心理的形成。

## 三、教育改革流於形式

觀察近年來的發展，教育改革實踐存在比較追求形式的傾向。不少改革只是通過泛泛的經驗交流和現場觀摩來作機械模仿。在模仿和移植技術時，並未事先進行深切的理性思考，致使改革流於形式，捨本逐末。例如，某一學校用了一套語文八字教學法：「談談、議議、練練、講講」。本來這是一種基本的教學形式，但是，在該校的課堂上這「八字教學法」卻成爲一個硬性的教學程序、被教師作機械式的模仿，令其創始者驚訝不安。在教育改革中儘管學校引進了「整體改革」、「愉快教育」、「特色學校」、「個性特長培養」、「素質教育」等不同類型的教育改革，儘管其主題與形式不斷變化，但往往沒有實質的改變。這是因爲教育改革仍在傳統的價值觀念裏運作，或者是因爲在否定了傳統教育弊端之後，未能建立新的價值觀念體系，使改革缺乏動力和方向感。

## 四、確立新的教育取向

教育改革的目的是要不斷完善教育，眞正實現教育的價值。價值取向決定人的行爲方向，指導人的行爲。教育改革最終能否達到目的走向成功，確立正確的教育價值取向是根本問題之所在。換句話說，在偏差的教育價值取向引導下追求成功無異於追求失敗。

教育工作者，尤其是小學校長和教師，在教育改革實踐表現出極大的改革熱情，這是教育改革的一個必要條件。但是僅憑熱情是不足夠的，游離了正確教育價值取向的改革甚至可能是危險的。

改革實踐需要理論指導，沒有理論的指導，改革實踐將是盲目的；不正確的理論則會產生誤導。教育改革呼喚着教育理論，尤其是其逐步推進深化階段，我們必須在正確的教育價值取向引導下建立教育改革新且高的起點。這是本人經歷這些年教育改革實踐較爲深切的體會。

周東蘇

# 教育價值取向應以人的個性發展爲中心

價值取向是人的一種選擇，是人的主觀意志的體現，它可能出現主觀不統一甚至相違背的情況，這就導致價值取向出現偏差，進而導致實踐走向的偏差。因此，在教育改革中對教育價值取向的選擇必須持實事求是的科學和客觀態度。

## 一、強調教育的工具價值取向的問題

建國以來，我國的教育價值取向主要以滿足社會需要爲出發點。在不同的歷史時期，「國家決策層選擇教育價值的基本視野沒有大變，思考問題的基本方法沒有大變，變化的只是具體的標準與內容」（葉，1989）。所以教育價值取向在不同時期分別被表述爲：教育爲工農服務，爲生產建設服務；教育爲無產階級政治服務，教育同生產勞動相結合；學校是階級鬥爭的工具；教育面向經濟，服務經濟。

教育是立國之本，它的確具有社會工具的價值。建國初期，新生政權極需鞏固，國家需要恢復經濟，人民需要重建家園。當時的教育確實應配合社會政治、經濟需要的價值取向，擔負起爲國家培養接班人與建設社會的任務。遺憾的是當時的教育價值取向因而只注重強調教育的社會工具價值，卻忽略了教育發展個性的價值。教育價值取向在其起點上出現的這種偏差，在文革期間登峯造極，致使整個教育體系幾乎處於癱瘓狀態。這是深刻的歷史教訓。

今天，我們面臨社會轉型時期，從計劃經濟向市場經濟轉變，與之相應的是民主政治多元化的推進。人們的價值觀念、生活方式都在改變之中。這意味着我們到了重新認識與擇定教育價值取向的重要關頭。在這重要關頭，我們應努力擺脫傳統教育價值取向的工具價值的影響。然而，當人們用教育的經濟價值取代其政治價值，再三強調教育要爲振興經濟服務時，我們再次看到轉型時期的教育價值取向仍沒擺脫那種以社會需要爲出發點的危機。

確定教育價值取向，我們應堅持做到「不惟上，不惟書，僅惟實」，即不唯唯諾諾於上級和書本，一切從實際出發。正確的選擇應該建基於我們對這個時代社會的政治、經濟、文化背景的全面了解。我們必須正確地認識我們這個社會與個人的眞正需要；正確認識教育應以人的個性發展爲中心的目標。惟有如此，我們才能在改革中做出正確的教育價值取向的抉擇，教育改革才能在正確的價值觀念體系上生長、發展、走向成功。

## 二、人文主義教育價值

取鑒於人文主義學科以建立教育取向，我們有必要參考人文學科的研究動態和成果。我們可以從哲學、社會學、經濟學和心理學的討論中得到不少啓發。哲學界的學者在中國現代化的過程中，從哲學的層面強調關懷人的心性層面，尤其體現在對人的終極關懷及精神寄托的關懷上。他們指出，現代社會是一個天、地、人、我日益疏離的社會，當代人處於「上不在天、下不在地、外不在人、內不在我」的荒謬處境。他們在對西方現代化和東亞現代化作了一番省察之後，強調當務之急是要關心解決現代人精神的惶惑，存在的危機，形上的迷失，生命的困惑等問題。正如郭齊勇說：「中國現代化事業的一個重要的建設層面是人的心性層面，現代教育不僅要傳播科學知識，而且也要重建與傳播人文精神，幫助人們提高心靈素質，進入眞實統一的人格境界」（郭，1994）。

我國著名的社會學家費考通在《略談中國的社會學》一文中，對他爲奮鬥了半個世紀貢獻了畢生精力的社會學研究作了回顧與反思。他寫道：

> 我確實覺得自己這十年的研究工作在理論上和方法上都已趕不上這個蓬勃發展的形勢了……。越來越感到我過去太偏重在社會結構的分析和描述這方面。這固然反映了這些社區的宏觀面貌，也顯示了它們發展的軌道。但是，我感到最大的缺點是在「只見社區不見人」。就是說在這個大變動中，聚居在社區裏生活的每一個人內心世界是怎樣的？他們有甚麼憂喜哀樂？他們有甚麼希望和追求？他們有甚麼夢？有甚麼心事？……（費，1994）

費考通以他那獨特的社會學研究者的敏感與智慧，洞察到以人爲主題的時代已經來臨，並且以模範學者的恢宏氣魄，對自己終生研究之得失作了難能可貴的反省。他在垂暮之年，把「只見社區不見人」這個問題與思考留給了從事社會學研究的年輕一代。費考通提出的問題也給予從事教育研究的人深刻的啓示。

從事經濟學研究的專家，亦將研究焦點對準了人。厲以寧將有關「人」的研究作爲經濟研究中最高的層次。他認爲在衡量我國的社會主義經濟和社會的發展目標時，應以實現社會平等、豐裕、人的全面發展、安全感、人與人之間的信任感爲評價標準。重物輕人、物支配人、片面追求經濟指標的做法其實是不符合社會主義經濟和社會發展目標的，是與社會主義社會的性質水火不相容的。過去經濟中把人作爲單純的「經濟人」來看待，這種做法存在嚴重的缺陷。他指出：

> 經濟學研究應把人作爲「社會人」來看待，他們在接受社會規範約束的同時，必然有自己的抱負和打算，並要考慮與他人及團體之間的協調性；而社會、團體也同樣應考慮個人發展的需要問題。（引自魏，1989）

他主張，社會主義社會的生產的目的不僅要滿足成員的物質消費需要，也要滿足其精神消費的需要。社會主義理想靠人去建設，社會應給予人應有的關懷、尊重和培養。同時，人也要對社會作出回報。他將社會與人的關係聯接起來，並提出了「社會一人」中心價值觀模式，給予我們解決教育價值取向問題很大的啓發。

心理學領域的研究成果，對我們了解人與教育提供了更直接的材料。被稱爲心理學第三思潮的人本主義心理學家面對與日俱增的失業、犯罪、道德淪喪、人的異化等社會問題，認爲僅靠財富繁榮、科技進步等都不可能給人類帶來眞正的幸福。因此，他們不失時機地再次提出人的尊嚴和價值等人道主義問題。馬斯洛(Maslow, 1983)從人本主義心理學出發，經過深入研究了最出色的成功人士後，提出了潛能說、自我實現等心理學理論。其研究成果使人的形象得到改變：人性本是好的，至少是中性的。人有高於一般動物的心理潛能，發揮創造潛能是人的最高需要，也是人生追求的最高目標——即人的自我實現。自我實現理論不僅把人放在高層次的地位，同時也揭示了個人需要與社會需要二位一體的存在方式和規律，爲建立「個人——社會」結合的教育價值取向提供了理論模型。學校教育的改革必須是以人的形象的改變爲條件，其變革必須以培養人和造就人爲出發點。

人本主義學者在不同的研究領域，從不同的研究角度和用不同的研究材料，都不約而同地提出一個問題：在邁向現代化的進程中，怎樣回復人的地位與尊嚴，怎樣使人生更幸福？更有價值感？他們得出了共同的結論：要確立人在社會中應有的地位和尊嚴，給予人尊重與關懷，將人從物質化、商品化、工業化的重圍中解放出來。

### 人文主義取向的教育價值符合市場經濟的社會特點

我國社會科學研究出現的「人學」現象，本來就是今天社會政治體制與經濟體制改革的折射，是東西文化碰撞的結果。

社會主義市場經濟具有自主性、多元性和利益性等性質特徵。與市場經濟相應的是社會主義民主政治的建設，人民眞正當家做主，眞正享有各項公民權利，享有管理國家和企業事務的權利。

今天社會的發展進步不再是靠自上而下的控制機制去實現，而是靠喚醒羣體、個體的主體意識，啓動人的積極性，建立民主機制去實現的。在這背景中，教育改革務要思考的問題是：教育價值的實現若以犧牲學生個性發展和壓抑個性爲代價，似乎是自相矛盾的。

## 確立人文主義的教育價值取向

### 一、對人文主義與人文主義教育取向的理解

人文主義主要有兩種含義：一是專指歐洲十四世紀興起的從以神爲中心到以人爲中心的世俗文化運動；一是泛指強調人的價值、人的尊嚴、堅持人的自由和幸福的權利，追求人的發展和自我完善的觀念。本文所指的人文主義，是屬於後

者的含義。人文主義是一種價值觀念。因此人文主義的教育價值取向強調尊重受教育者的人格，給予他們充分的關懷和愛護，扶助他們健康成長，讓他們作爲人的價值得以實現出來。

### 二、人文主義教育重視發揮人的潛能

人文主義教育價值取向的確立不僅反映社會的發展需要，而且也反映人的發展需要。它是由人的潛能、價值與人在社會活動中的地位所帶動的。人具有令人類驕傲的潛能，但是人的潛能的發揮、人的自主性、創造性的實現需要以人文主義教育爲條件。人性中亦有消極面。人類破壞性和侵犯性的一面往往是在缺乏關懷、愛心和尊重的成長環境中出現。個體在學校得到良好的滋潤與培養而健康成長，個人的活力便給社會注入活力，個人的素質的提高因而促進了全民素質的提高。個人與社會都不能各自孤立存在，因爲個人不僅作爲社會的產物而存在着，人更是創造歷史和推動歷史前進的主體，也是社會的主人。

人文主義教育價值取向是對教育規律的反映。教育是一項培養人的神聖事業。在教育領域裏，人是目的，人是標準。這是教育的出發點與落腳點。

### 三、人文主義教育旣重視個人，亦重視社會

人文主義教育認爲教人比教書更重要。人文主義教育價值取向並不否定與排斥社會利益與價值。它的目的是一方面啓發學生發現自我，但另一方面幫助他們發現做人的義務，即對家人、朋友、工作、羣體和社會所應盡的義務。它主張旣要給予學生更多的自由，同時又要教導他們守紀自律，尊重他人。

人文主義的教育價值取向承認人有多種需要，對於能夠自我實現的人，他們的工作、事業與娛樂是合而爲一的。他們旣將工作當作一種事業，也將工作視爲一種歡樂，不斷地從工作中獲取成就感，體驗發現與創造帶來的歡樂。奉獻對他們來說又是一種獲取。例如，一個成功的小學教師，會把教育頑童當作自己人生一大快事。雖然嘔心瀝血，但他能看到一批批學生不斷進步成長，能從中觀照到自己的存在價值，也就得到了極大的精神回報。因此，個體需要與社會需要是可以很好地統一起來的。自我價值只有在社會中、人際關係中才能眞正得到實現。我們在教育過程中，一方面要注意滿足學生的個人需要，讓他們充分發揮個人的潛能，用成就感推動他們追求自我實現。另一方面亦要給他們一種社會感，將社會價值與發展個人價值相互結合。

## 實踐人文主義教育的條件

在人文主義價值取向指導下，教育改革應着重解決以下兩個問題：

第一是學校裏全體教師員工人文主義教育價值觀的培植。第二是培養學生正確的自我觀念。

### 一、教育工作者人文主義教育取向的培植

目前中小學教育存在的問題，可以歸結爲一句話：「教育工作者目中無人，分數至上、升學第一。」這個問題的存在一方面歸究於教育制度，另一方面歸究於教育工作者本身缺乏專業理論修養。從小學教育現狀來看，後者更突出。

沒有觀念的改變就沒有行爲的改變。大多數的教育改革最終都要由教師承擔實施與操作。教師需具備良好的理論素養，以及人文主義的教育信念，才能在社會轉型時期對教育現狀洞悉危機，因而對教育改革產生迫切感，有改革的意識與衝動，並能對教育改革有甄別眞僞的能力，才能在教育改革中有所建樹。

有人認爲，在教育改革中，讓專門從事理論研究的專家學者負責教改的設計，再交由學校教師與教育行政人員實施與操作就行了，他們單純地以爲操作者手執方案，就能完成教改任務，達到教改目的了。事實並非如此簡單。如操作者對操作方案沒有足夠的認識，只知其然而不知其所以然。其結果必會陷入形式主義，改革欠深入，更無系統可言。近來的教育改革給予我們這方面的教訓是深刻的。所以說教師的正確教育價值觀的確立與否直接影響教育改革的成敗。

人文主義教育比較重視與強調的是貫穿在整個教育過程中的教育工作者的觀念與態度。對於培養人的工作而言，教育工作者的觀念、態度比

教學的方法和技術來得更重要。

從我們的小學教育現狀來看，正確的教育價值觀很難自發地生長於小學教師之中。所以我們要對教師進行較全面、較具系統的人文主義教育。教師培訓工作不能只重視學科教學法的訓練。若把教學研究狹隘地演繹爲單純的教學方法技能的訓練，把教師培訓單純理解爲教學技藝的提高，那麼，我們的教師將成爲只教書不教人的「教書匠」而已，無法成爲高層次的「人類靈魂工程師」。

教師教育價值觀念的轉變與培植是一項既關鍵又艱難的工程，但其重要性值得我們克服困難去付出代價。因爲沒有教師思想觀念的改變，就不會有教師教育行爲的改變，教育改革就可能成爲一句口號而已。

## 二、培養學生正確的自我觀念

自我觀念是一個人對自己的評價與看法。它是一個人立身於團體、社會的一個重要支點，是人格的核心部份。有正確自我觀念的人，同時擁有良好的人際關係，心理健康、工作學習效率自然提高。如果自我觀念出現偏差，接着產生心理不平衡狀態，就會做出攻擊性或退縮性的行爲。我們的教育一直忽視自我觀念的培育。在分數至上、升學第一的教育環境裏面，絕大多數學生是在反覆體驗失敗的滋味。他們不斷地從分數裏、從教師與同學的態度中接收種種打擊自我的消極信息：如「成績總上不去！」「腦子不夠靈活」等等。這些評價逐步強化了學生「我不行」、「我是個失敗者」的自我觀念。他們享受不到成功的樂趣，厭學情緒便油然而生，而且與日俱增。

培養學生的成就感（包括學術領域與非學術領域）是培養學生正確自我觀念、樹立自信心的關鍵。每個人都渴望別人給他們應得的承認和讚揚。讚揚能夠大大提高人的心理和生理積極因素。

> 當一個疲憊的孩子受到讚揚時，他會產生一種明顯的新的向上力量（教師對孩子的鼓勵和表揚會極大影響孩子一生的事業和發展）。這樣的例子不勝枚舉。」只有當別人全心全意並一如既往地承認一個兒童的成績時，這個兒童夠自我才能獲得真正的力量。當孩子受不到讚揚和承認時，他們現有的體力也會戲劇性地減退。（戈布爾，1987，頁168）

人文主義教育的目的在於培養學生的智能，培養學生的人格。成功的教育就是讓學生不斷從學習過程嘗試成功，樹立自信心。「人這種動物是靠自信心這種精神食糧成長的」（王國和，19）。教師的職責就是幫助每一個學生找到屬於自己的那份自信，抬起頭來做人，並且在成就感和自信心之間形成良性循環。成就感是使學生熱愛生命、熱愛學習，追求進步的台階；成就感使學生們觀照自己存在的力量，感受與體驗學習創造的快樂，領略生命的價值。

在成功感教育的基礎上，我們還要注重培養學生承受挫折、失意的能力，培養學生有克服困難的勇氣與意志。在人文主義教育的體系，這當然是在樹立正確的自我觀念的前提下進行。

## 結語

我們今天的教育改革實踐迫切需要正確理論的引導。正確的引導必須來自對教育改革實踐的理性思考。教師若能掌握正確理論，便能在實踐中富創造性地去發展和豐富它。這樣我們的教育改革才能獲得實效。

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# 香港強逼教育制度的困境

**賀國強**
香港中文大學

強逼教育在西方國家實行多年，面臨很多困難，其中以學生不良行爲及輟學兩項爲最嚴重，香港在這方面亦遇到相似的情況。本文通過一所中學近年在輔導問題學生的經驗，希望能找出一條可行的路去面對上述兩個問題。

**The Difficult Situation of Compulsory Education in Hong Kong**

Compulsory education has been put in practice in the Western world for many years. Behavior disorder and dropping out from school are the two major problems encountered by western countries. In enforcing compulsory education, Hong Kong is facing difficulties similar to those in the western world. Based on the experience in counseling problematic students in a secondary school, the author discusses a possible solution to the problems.

## 引言

香港自一九七八年實施九年強逼教育後，初期除了學位供應量的增加外，在質方面仍是保留精英教育年代學生「自生自滅，適者生存」的模式。強逼教育的精神是使每一個學童在規定年限內接受認可的教育（通常是指進入學校而言），而精英教育則是強調學生成績優勝劣敗；兩者觀念實是背道而馳。故此在八十年代開始，這兩個觀念的衝突愈形尖銳。

八十年代中期以來，一連串改進教育的政策（教統會第一至五號報告書，1984，1986，1988，1990，1992），逼使教育當局留意到強逼教育在質方面的改進，其中特別關注到學童輟學及行爲問題，而這兩方面正是與廣大教育界的接觸點，故此八十年代中期以後，本港討論強逼教育的研討會及專輯此起彼落，例：強逼教育專輯（程介明、黃顯華等，1987）、強逼教育專刊（黃顯華、鍾宇平等，1988）、香港普及教育檢討與展望（檢討九年免費教育聯席會議，1991）等。

進入九十年代，每屆暑假前後，報章不時報導有關學生離校及教育署介入調查的消息（例：明報九四年八月十七日教育版等）。教育當局更委任專責小組研究支援取錄第五組別學生學校的問題，該小組並已完成有關的工作報告（1993），希望這能更進一步強化本港強逼教育的推行。

究竟本港的強逼教育在推行時出了甚麼問題？與歐美先進國家有何異同？近年的困境有無出路？本文特從歐美國家這方面的經驗開始，通過筆者在校內輔導問題學生及其家長的經驗，希望能探索到一條可行的途徑供同道參考。

## 文獻探討

強逼教育最早在德國發展。廿世紀中葉以後，世界各國爭相延長強逼教育的年限，認爲提高國民教育水平不但可使個人得益，整個國家也會受惠，教育水平高低是國家進步發展的指標。聯合國人權宣言指出每個人都有接受教育的權利，認爲六年的小學教育應是強逼的。經濟合作聯合國人權宣言指出，每個人都有接受教育的權利，認爲六年的小學教育應是強逼的。經濟合作發展組織諸會員國多是實行九年強逼教育(OECD, 1983)，可是實行強逼教育的年限不能無限期的延長，學生成長達一定的年歲，推行強逼教育便開始遇到困難，較明顯的是經濟方面的負擔，而背地裡極強的暗湧是學生的行爲、缺課及輟學等問題。

進入七十年代，不少學者及國家的教育當局已體會實行強逼教育的種種阻力，開始有建議將強逼教育離校年歲降回十四歲(National Commission, 1974)。亦有人看到在學校裡實施強逼教育，不但未能使學生受到師長良好的教導，學生反而受到朋輩壞行爲的影響(Adams, Stein & Wheeler, 1989; Bereiter, 1973)。

當學生還年少的時候，給予他們強逼教育沒有多大問題，故此聯合國人權宣言中建議最基本六年的強逼教育爲絕大多數人士和政府所接納，

但當學童進入中學，這正是其生理、心理成長迅速的青春期，強逼教育也許對大多數學童尙發生作用，可是面對一部份反叛性強的學童，在家庭、居住及學校環境沒有配合好的情況下，強逼教育便面臨最尖銳的挑戰：這些學童再不容易馴服於師長或學校的教導，在學校裡製造種種問題。雖然表面上社會強逼他們留校接受教育，而事實上卻是校內其他的學生，甚至是老師忍受他們的騷擾、欺凌，以致學校成爲犯罪的溫床、危險的地方，實行九年或以上強逼教育各國的教育部門和學者在這方面窮於應付（例：Shea & Bauer, 1987; Wehman, 1992; Gross & Gross 1985等）。這些無心向學的青少年的下場，往往就是缺課或輟學，在傳統精英教育之下，這是優勝劣敗的自然調節，但因著強逼教育的實行，各國的教育部門及學者們卻在苦思對策，如何將這羣缺課或輟學的青少年找回（例：APEID, 1987; Gruskin & Campbell, 1987; HMI, 1989; LeCompte & Dworkin, 1991; Roderick, 1993; West, 1991; 黃武鎮，1989）。巴文及谷氏(Bhaerman & Kopp, 1988)所做的就是把各方面的對策加以綜合整理，列出四大類共九十二項的方法去解決這問題。

## 一所中學輔導問題學生的經驗

筆者於一所資助中學任職多年。該校乃一中等程度的學校，在八九年開始由市區遷往新市鎮，學生主要是集中在第二至四級之間。該校處理問題學生的方法與其他一般中學無異：通常課室內的小問題由個別課堂老師處理，其他校內問題則由班主任負責；若學生頻出問題則班主任會會見家長，並按個別情況決定是否邀請輔導老師、社工或訓導老師協助；若問題學生情況沒有改善，所犯的校規累積很多或事情重大則交由輔導主任、訓導主任或社工跟進，並繼續與學生家長聯絡；若情況不斷惡化，則再轉交校長會見其家長，商討有關改善的辦法，並探討轉換環境的可能性。

若以學生犯事的累積紀錄來計算，學生通常不會在初犯時便留下懲罰紀錄。惟在三數次重覆再犯之下，老師便會發出警告信知會家長。若學生仍沒改善，繼續犯規，則累積三警告便成一缺點、三缺點便成一小過、三小過便成一大過。在警告、留缺點和記過期間，該生的班主任、科老師、輔導老師、訓導老師和社工通常已如上段所述多方多次輔導學生及其家長。若犯滿三大過，則訓導主任便會知會校長約見家長，商討該生轉換環境的可能性。故此若學生沒有犯任何重大的過失，而又累積有三大過，其所犯的過失通常已達數百次之多。

當校長接見問題學生及其家長時，通常學生所犯的錯失已累積至大過的階段。在校長與學生或其家長詳談改善問題後，一部份的學生或家長意識到問題的嚴重性，便會有積極的改善。若情況仍無改善，校長會再與學生的家長商談，並開始商討學生轉換環境以便改進的可能性。校長接見家長的時間平均約爲一小時，長的有時達兩小時，會見同一學生家長的次數最多曾達五次，通常是一至二次。再計算會見校長之前，訓導、輔導主任、社工、班主任及其他老師會見該問題學生的家長及輔導學生的時間，則大家所花的精力實在非少。

下表是該中學在過去四學年間初中學生離開該校的情況（移民除外）

| 學年 | 轉校 | 工作 | 其他 | 總數 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 89－90 |  |  |  | 20 |
| 90－91 | 13 | 0 | 19 | 32 |
| 91－92 | 20 | 3 | 15 | 38 |
| 92－93 | 11 | 0 | 4 | 15 |

上表的數字其實頗爲粗略，八九至九〇年已是數年前資料，只能從學校的紀錄中取得，其後幾年則是由學校個別追蹤所得的結果，其他一欄包括接觸不到、已搬遷或拒絕提供資料等。因該校收生情況日有改善，故至九二至九三學年時，離校學生的數字已大爲減少。

熟識香港教育情況的人會驚奇爲甚麼有這麼多初中學生願意自動離開該校，因爲初中是屬於強逼教育監管的年限，教育署在這方面有頗爲嚴謹的管理，亦在社會上作了很多的宣傳，告訴學

生及其家長學校不能「趕」十五歲以下的初中學生離校，並鼓勵有需要的學生或家長直接往教育署求助，而教育署通常是勸導學生回校，故此各校每年離校學生的表面數字不多。但當讀者再詳讀上文，便知該校對學生及其家長已做了很詳盡的輔導，特別是學生在該校的老師悉心多方教導之下仍是屢勸不改，因學校的制度、師長和環境不可能有即時的突變，若繼續留下只會蹉跎歲月，而且該校答應學生若肯嘗試轉換環境，在隨後的學年要是有需要，學生可以無條件回校升讀高一班。

當學生及其家長看到學校教導的誠意，不像其他學校只是千方百計的「趕」學生走，而以後就是一刀兩斷，再無瓜葛，永遠不能再回原校，故此大都肯接受學校的輔導，離開轉往另一環境。事實上，在過去幾年亦有學生在離開一段時間後要求回校，其行爲通常都有顯著改善，若仍未能達到水準者，一般在中三升中四時的派位制度下自然流失。

若與其他學校相比，該校在訓導及輔導學生方面已算成功，但花在每位行爲有問題或無心向學的學生的時間實在極其可觀：單以校長來計，用在接見輔導這羣學生及其家長的時間每年都超過一百小時，若再加上其他情況未算嚴重的學生，已用去其每年工作時間的十分之一以上（教師每年工作時間約一千三百小時（Morris, 1993），校內其他直接面對學生的老師的工作量只會更爲沉重，長此以往實在吃不消！難怪有學者直接將行爲有問題的學生與老師耗盡相題並論(LeCompte & Dworkin, 1991)。

在輔導學生轉換環境時，該校亦遇到實際的困難：多數學生及其家長都希望能轉往另一學校，但當時教育署本身所採的政策是「原璧歸趙」，而其他學校一般都是拒絕收納這類學生，該校長所能動用的「友情」也有限，每年介紹三數十位的學生轉校實在不可能，故此在表中所列的轉校數字其實主要是該等學生或其家長努力的成果，但這實際上對他們並不公平：因爲強逼教育的制度是要學生留在校內，而這些學生既已証明不能適應原校的生活，教育當局卻不肯負責，強要原校收回，不但學校爲難，學生則更苦！可幸支援取錄第五組別學生的報告書（1993）終於面世，學位安排的網絡相信可解決部份的問題。

惟仍有小部份學生其實是極不適合再留在傳統的學校中，從表中可見有三位學生是出來社會工作，可是目前香港卻沒有適當的機制去監察和引導這羣學生的動向，而教育當局亦不積極爲這羣學生動腦筋，開拓一些新的出路，故此香港九年強逼教育雖已實施了十多年，但其中的漏洞仍是不少，以致學校、學生、家長、甚至教育署的官員們都深受其苦！

## 討論

西方社會推行九年強逼教育多年，其所面臨最大的問題是初中階段學生不良行爲、缺課及輟學，他們的政府和學者們集中在這方面研究了一頗長的時間，才有學者整理得出一系列的對策(Bhaerman & Kopp, 1988)，台灣和香港推行九年強逼教育較西方社會爲遲，但面臨的問題亦相若，台灣黃武鎮（1989）和香港的檢討九年免費教育聯席會議（1991）亦得出相類似的方案，惟台灣和香港的方案似乎仍忽略了一些極度無心向學，暫時不願再留在學校或類似建制下的學生，而西方社會的對策中則覺察這類學生的存在，他們一般認爲只要在合理的監管制度下，讓這些學生出來工作體驗是一件可行的事(LeCompte & Dworkin, 1991; Gruskin & Campbell, 1987; Wehman, 1992; Silberman, 1970)。

香港職業訓練局或類似的機構（建造業訓練局等）設有學徒訓練計劃，讓十四歲以上或完成中三課程的學生可以接受職業訓練及有實習的機會，而且在訓練期間還有千多二千元的零用津貼，本應可以照顧部份這類無心向學的青少年的需要，但這類計劃的最低年齡限制未能與開始無心向學及產生行爲問題的年齡（十二、三歲）銜接，加上單位成本昂貴，很難大規模收納這羣問題學生，故此未能解決現實的問題。

其實以香港目前的法例來說（李宗鍔 1991），十三至十五歲的學童是可以部份時間出來工作，若教育署或學校當局與各工商機構合作研究，大可得出一套詳盡完整的計劃，安排這類極度無心向學的學生，每天在這些機構當數小時的兼職，賺取合理的零用錢，同時安排這些學童在每日某段時間（上、下午或黃昏六至九時間）往一些特定的學校上課，因其學習時間較短，課程內容可以只集中在中、英、數等核心課程方面。要是這類型的學校在短時間內未能設立，亦可以化整為零的形式，給各校自行處理；各校可安排此等學生每天或每周回校由特定的輔導老師給予個別或小組指導其學習進度，將這些無心向學的學生與原來有志向學的大多數同學隔離，免致受到他們的感染。相信這些無心向學者亦樂於不再受困在沉悶的課堂中，而在外面的工作亦因學校與有關的工商機構有密切聯絡而不致令他們誤入歧途，或遭遇不合理的剝削。

另一方面，各工商機構相信亦樂於採納這些措施，事實上往日九年強逼教育實行前，各機構可以低廉的工資聘得這些童工作信差、練習生或服務員，但當實行九年強逼教育後，這方面的人力供應全部消失，各工商機構被逼要用較高的工資才能填補這方面的空缺。香港社會在這方面較西方社會優勝之處是近年工商業發展迅速，人力需求緊張，不像西方社會經常面臨循環性的蕭條現象，學生出外兼職更會增加失業的人數。

這些半工讀的學生要是在以後較年長或渡過暴風少年期後，願意安份守紀地回到學校全時間讀書，各學校或教育當局亦可安排他們插入適當的班級或夜校就讀，像筆者任職多年的學校收納這些回流的學生一樣，無論學生、老師或學校當然會有一定的適應，但總勝於目前大多數學校在初中階段面對這羣行為不良、無心向學的學生所產生的困局。

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# 學校與家庭的聯繫

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本文主要改寫自教育署所委託「家庭與學校合作研究」的其中一個專題研究報告。此研究採用問卷、訪問、小組討論及文件分析的方法，共搜集到學校與家庭聯繫的8個目的和27種聯繫方式。本文簡單列出各種方式，並報導有關人士對這些方式的一些意見。在文章總結部份，作者帶出學校與家庭聯繫背後的一些問題，並嘗試給予學校一些聯繫家庭的建議。

**Home -School Links**

This paper is based on one of the focus studies in the Home-School Cooperation Research commissioned by the Hong Kong Education Department. Via questionnaires, interviews, focus group discussions and analyses of school documents, the study identified 8 purposes and 27 practices of home-school links in Hong Kong schools. The paper presents these practices briefly and reports some views on the practices collected from the various people concerned. Concluding the paper, the author brings out a few identified problems behind the scene of home-school links and attempts to make some suggestions to schools about developing links with parents in Hong Kong.

## 引言

家庭與學校合作對學童的教育效果極爲重要，家長的參與是提高學校教育效果的最關鍵因素之一。家長參與子女的學校教育愈多，子女學習得好的機會愈大（Munn, 1993）。Plowden 報告書（1967）指出：「家長的鼓勵與支持，比家庭環境或學校的差異有更大的影響。」因此，「教育必須與整個家庭連結起來」。然而家長參與的方式很多，Epstein（1987）鑑定四種類型的家長參與，包括（一）家長基本的義務、（二）家長參與學童在家裏的學習、（三）學校向家庭的溝通、（四）家長在校內的參與。本文主要討論（三）與（四）兩方面的家長參與，這些參與均以學校爲基地和由學校來發動。

一九九三年夏，作者參與全港性的家庭與學校合作研究（Education Department, 1994）。本文報導其中一個定質的專題研究「家庭與學校聯繫的方式」。此研究旨在找出和了解目前學校用甚麼方法與家庭聯繫，並嘗試提供資料和意見給學校去發展各種的聯繫。

## 研究方法

本研究採用多種資料搜集的方式，包括問卷、電話及面談的訪問、小組討論等。

研究所用的校長問卷中有一題是開放式問題，問及學校以甚麼特別的方法去推行家庭與學校合作，並鼓勵學校連同問卷附上有關資料，因此可以搜集到有關學校與家長聯繫的初步資料。

同時，本研究曾經以電話和面談訪問過40位校長，訪問是半規則的。每次訪問達10至45分鐘，視乎被訪者願意提供多少資料。訪問環繞學校與家庭溝通的方法和合作模式，包括一些推動家庭與學校聯繫的策略和對雙方合作的意見。

本研究亦收集家長對各種家庭與學校聯繫的意見，在一九九四年一月曾安排三次家長小組討論，參加討論者包括12位幼稚園學生的家長、15位小學生家長和12位中學生家長。在討論中，家長有機會發表對一系列的家庭與學校合作活動的意見。

爲瞭解實際要推行活動的教師的意見，研究在一九九四年一月亦舉辦三個教師小組討論，幼稚園組別有9位教師，小學組別有14位教師，中學組別有19位教師參加討論，除發表對各種家庭與學校聯繫方式的意見外，他們還討論如何改善現行方法和可能遇見的困難。

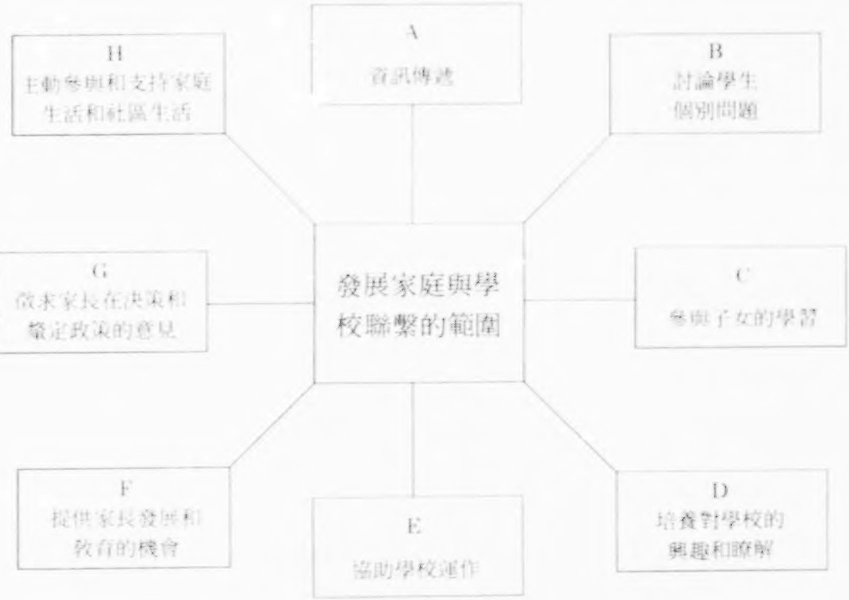
搜集對家庭和學校聯繫的意見和資料的方法，還包括在一九九三年七月至九月舉行的16個重點小組討論，出席者有7位校監、47位校長、32位教師、34位家長、24位學校社工／輔導教師、26位學生、16位家長教師會／家長會的代表。此外，本研究進行超過100次非正式訪問和個人接觸，去會見校長、教師、家長、學生、家

長敎師會委員、辦學團體行政人員，甚至校車司機，以識別良好的方法，和爲個別現象徵求意見；另外亦曾從剪報、學校刊物及其它刊物作資料搜集。

## 研究結果——學校與家庭聯繫的範圍和方式

調查一共發出2,363問卷給校長，收回1,049份。309位校長塡報了推行學校與家庭合作的特別方法，包括講座和家長課程。其中58位是幼稚園校長，143位是小學校長，88位是中學校長，20位是特殊學校校長。他們對問卷的回應，的確提供了不少學校與家庭聯繫的資料。

本研究共搜集到27種學校與家庭聯繫的方式，以目的分類，共有8個範圍。這些範圍是修訂自 Bastiani（1989）的「發展家庭與學校聯繫的範圍」（附圖）。在下面的分類中，同一種聯繫方式可能在不同範圍出現，因爲它可以達到不同的目的。分類只是作爲舉例，並且是隨意的。究竟一種方法可否達到某些目的視乎其設計和推行。例如，學校刊物可以達到資訊傳遞的目的，也可以提供家長敎育和發展的機會。


A
資訊傳遞
B
討論學生
個別問題
C
參與子女的學習
D
培養對學校的
興趣和瞭解
E
協助學校運作
F
提供家長發展和
敎育的機會
G
徵求家長在決策和
釐定政策的意見
H
主動參與和支持家庭
生活和社區生活
發展家庭與學
校聯繫的範圍

下列是在香港學校所找到的8個範圍（A-H），共27種的學校與家庭聯繫方式，這些方式都曾在香港個別學校實行過的。一般來說，本地的各類學校與家庭的聯繫以資訊傳遞（A）及討論個別學生的問題（B）爲主，而在英童及國際學校則8個範圍的活動都有一定的普遍性。本地學校中又以幼稚園和特殊學校與家庭的聯繫較多元化，本地中小學和家庭聯繫的目的很狹窄，多變化的聯繫只在個別學校出現。

- A　資訊傳遞
  - A 1 家長大會
  - A 2 學生成績表
  - A 3 學生手冊
  - A 4 學校通告
  - A 5 學校刊物（校訊／雜誌／小冊子）
  - A 6 學校概覽
  - A 7 家長佈告版
  - A 8 熱線
  - A 9 校長致家長的信
    - 同班聯絡
- B　討論個別學生的問題
  - B 1 非正式個人接觸
  - B 2 個別會見
  - B 3 電話對話
    - 家訪

- C 家長參與子女的學習
  - C 1 親子活動
  - C 2 觀課
  - C 3 家長參與改善學生學習／行爲
    - 同班聯絡
    - 家訪
- D 培養對學校的興趣和瞭解
  - D 1 學校活動／典禮
  - D 2 家長教師會／家長會
  - D 3 同班聯絡
    - 觀課
    - 家長大會
    - 學校刊物
    - 親子活動
    - 家長參與改善學生學習／行爲
    - 籌款活動
    - 聯誼活動
- E 協助學校運作
  - E 1 家長協助
  - E 2 籌款活動
    - 家長教師會／家長會
    - 家長組
- F 提供家長發展和教育的機會
  - F 1 家長教育
  - F 2 家長組
    - 家長大會
    - 學校刊物
    - 親子活動
    - 家長教師會／家長會
    - 聯誼活動
- G 徵求家長在決策和釐定政策的意見
  - G 1 家長問卷
  - G 2 家長任校董會成員
  - G 3 意見箱
    - 非正式個人接觸
    - 家長教師會／家長會
    - 家長組
- H 主動參與和支持家庭生活和社區生活
  - H 1 家訪
  - H 2 聯誼活動
    - 親子活動
    - 家長教師會／家長會
    - 家長教育
    - 家長組

由於本文旨在討論研究的結果，故不在文章內細列或評論各項聯繫方式。有關27項方式的詳細報資料於附錄以供參考。

## 討論——學校與家庭聯繫的背後

以下主要討論這研究所帶出學校與家庭聯繫背後的一些問題。

### 一、家長和學校的關係和了解

部份家長和學校間看來有一些的矛盾，特別在普通小學和中學。在小組討論中，有些家長對教師和學校有些微言，不過他們害怕將意見告訴學校，不少家長對學校的投訴，並未得到適當的處理。另一方面，有些校監和校長對家長參與甚備戒心。學校和家長之間有些不信任和意見，看來二者缺乏溝通，如果有雙向溝通的機會，有些矛盾或可解除。有一位家長有子女分別就讀幼稚園和小學，當她發現子女成績退步時，她可以從幼稚園教師瞭解原因；但她卻未能接觸到小學教師，唯有自己去猜想成績差的原因。

在小組討論中，有些教師，特別是成績較差學生的教師，對家長教育子女的決心和能力持負面看法。他們集中關注某些不合作的家長，而忽略了家長當中可能有不同意見和態度，他們不知道另一些家長可能和他們是意見一致的。一位「第五級」學校的校長認爲不少家長仍十分關心其子女，這是從家長出席座談會的反應可見的。有些教師對家長的「偏見」可能來自過往和家長接觸的經驗，可能這些教師和家長的愉快經驗甚少，而亦鮮有機會非正式地會晤家長，如通過學校活動和聯誼活動。

另一方面，有些學生表示父母不明白學校的運作。在一些最近設立家長教師會的學校，校長和教師評論不少家長不明白教師的工作量和學校的限制，他們對學校的期望太高，提議很多。

### 二、學校對家長的責任

一些學校行政人員和教師的問責概念不明顯，他們很少向家長解釋教學的安排，很多參與

小組討論的小學和中學家長，表示學校極少邀請家長出席學校活動，爲家長舉辦的聚會亦很少，家長並且沒有收到足夠有關學校和子女的消息、班主任和家長的正式接觸甚少，而每次接觸的時間甚短，「同班聯絡」亦不普遍。

在一般的中、小學，家長不容易接觸到教師和校長。很多學校都缺乏有效的途徑給家長表達意見。很多教師，包括班主任，均經常以工作量大爲理由而不出席家長座談會和家長教師聚會，他們不似向家長負責。

另外，家長亦甚少獲知有關學校政策、學校運作的情形和課程概況。甚少學校主動設立家長教師會和家長會。調查中接觸到的學校，均無機制去推行家庭與學校合作，可見他們以往對這方面的不注重。

有些學校的校訊，不時強調學生的優秀表現，不過甚少提及學校的運作和計劃。另外，就算印製年報，亦甚少發放給家長。

## 三、學校看家長的角色

學校和家長的對話和討論的機會甚少。聯繫的主要方式是「由上而下」、由學校「通知」家長，不少家長自覺處於被動和卑下的地位。對學校和家長而言，「合作」常常是「願意依從學校的指示」的意思。

很多家長認爲教師甚少和他們協議教學安排，更不用說和他們分享、共同發展教學目標。似乎有些教師並不欣賞家長對其子女的觀點和認識。和教師討論教學問題時，家長感覺自己在協助學校和教學的能力受輕視。

普遍來說，教師似乎不當家長爲伙伴，小學教師則以家長爲督促學生做功課和溫習的助手，在幼稚園和特殊學校中，伙伴關係較明顯。一小學教師說她發現教師和家長合作的重要性，是當她開始參與教輔導班的時候。

在過去三年，政府對家長參與的政策大大改變，學校管理新措施突然出現，意圖加速家長參與學校管理，但很多學校似乎並未準備好推行以上的計劃。最近，家庭和學校合作委員會推動家長教師會，可能令一些校長和教師將「家庭與學校合作」等同「設立家長教師會」，在問及家庭與學校聯繫的特別方法時，一些校長卻回答爲何其學校不設立家長教師會，顯得有些自衛。

在政府鼓勵下，不少學校開始考慮他們應和家長發展什麼新關係和是否應該邀請家長擔任一些新的角色，例如在學校的限制下是否應推行家長教育，有些反應快的學校即設立家長教師會，但發現要付出不少代價。

## 四、教師與家長接觸的形象

由於教師接觸家長主要因爲學生問題，家長傾向的看法是「無消息就是好消息」，有些學生認爲，教師約見家長便是麻煩的預兆。

爲何教師只在有問題時才接觸家長？我們必須找出原因。是否因爲：(a) 教師只有時間將問題通知家長，(b) 教師想家長分擔負擔，(c) 教師不明白提高學生和家長自尊的重要性，(d) 教師擅于批評，(e) 其他原因？中學的另一個現象是和以前因開除學籍會見家長有關，因爲教育署規定學校須在開除學生學籍前通知和給家長充份的警告，這可能也使「會見家長」的形象蒙污。

學生不喜歡家長與教師接觸，使家庭與學校溝通有時受學生阻礙，阻礙通常在高小開始出現，學校發出的信息往往傳達不到家中，特別在學生成績較差的中學，學校須想方法去傳達信息，以避免學生從中阻礙。

跡象顯示學生與家長和教師的關係，影響他們對教師和家長接觸的觀感。有中學生表示只歡迎父母和他喜歡的教師對話，學生亦介意其父母在校的表現，但有些學生則歡迎家長參與家長教師會的工作。看來學生對教師和家長接觸的反應，和他們建立自尊有關。

## 五、家長和教師的信心和技巧

一些家長認爲有些教師處理學生問題時頑固和不講理，家長的意見不能傳達，亦不爲校方接受。一些教師卻不滿家長不尊重教師、以瑣事麻煩他們、時常向校長投訴。校長看來有時必須担任兩者的調停人，並協助兩者互相欣賞和瞭解。一位社工認爲家長在其子女就讀幼稚園和初小時，可能抱有負責和樂觀的態度。不過，當家長持續地面對教導子女的挫敗時，就將重擔卸給學校和社工。如果這是事實，當子女入學時，就應開始「教育家長」了。

教師入職前，都沒有受過有關家庭與學校合作的訓練，這類在職訓練亦甚少。很多教師不明白家長參與的重要和增進與家長關係的需要。

另外，很多家長與教師會見收效不大。很多教師自覺缺乏信心和技巧去輔導家長、召開家長會議、推動家長教師會和與家長共事。有關當局和學校可能需要幫助教師有效地和家長合作。從校長、家長和教師表達出來的困難看，以下的訓練重點可能有用：「矛盾管理」、「輔導家長」、「回應的方法」、「如何領家長組」和「如何協助破碎家庭」。另外，有困難的教師均希望向其他有經驗的教師學習。

## 六、教師的工作量

教師和家長均認爲有些家長未負起看管子女的責任，更不用說輔導子女學習。學校人員經常投訴這些「缺席家長」，這些家長將教育學生的責任全推給學校，使學校工作增加困難。有些教師說當家長知道教師會好好管教其子女時，他們就會把所有責任交給他們。

有些中學教師感到工作量甚大，他們的問題不是不明白家庭與學校合作的重要性，而是由於這種「合作」增加他們原已沉重的工作量。一間學校校長曾計劃一個完善組織去處理家長事宜，不過，由於不能抽調已有職責的教師，而須延遲推行計劃。

在一般小學和中學，由於教師多和班上學生人數多，教師難以認識個別學生和接觸個別家長。有些校長認爲最近將小一學生人數減至30，明顯地減少教師工作量。一位任教特殊學校的教師對比以前任教普通小學的經驗時說，現在班上人數少，所以可以和家長較多接觸。

## 七、教學管理

學校管理不善和教學不佳均帶來家長的不滿，最明顯的是家長不同意教師採用的「無理」懲罰。有些家長又說中學的校規不明確。另外一個例子是當學童由幼稚園高班升到小一時，家長投訴學童很難適應小學的要求。

家長和學生都希望開心到學校，如果學生不喜歡學校生活，可能影響其父母對學校的觀感。同時，如果家長到校時得不到尊重和欣賞，他們和學校的關係亦受損。一位校長在不常出席活動的家長出現時向他們表示欣賞。另一間學校在家長日，會由學生向其家長獻花以表達教養之恩。如果想吸引學生家長到校，學校應要作出努力，使它成爲一個受歡迎的地方。

有些學校過份關注學業成績，使家長，特別子女成績差的家長，卻步不前。有些家長表示功課壓力影響家長與子女關係和家長對學校的感覺。另一方面，亦有家長感激學校提供家長教育，並教導學生如何和家長相處。

很多跡象顯示政府以學校爲解決社會問題的機制；然而，政府分配給學校的資源雖然已有增加，但似乎仍然未足夠。還有其他阻礙家庭與學校合作的因素，例如小學半日制。一位資深教師表示上午小學較下午小學難接觸家長。有些全日制小學會在午飯時間給家長進入校園，這做法在半日制小學行不通。

有些校長和教師認爲地區上一些志願機構提供的服務並未被好好利用，其實它們可以支援家長教育。一方面，有些學校社工或學生輔導教師沒有去聯絡地區的資源。另一方面，可能有些學校又太依賴只有「半份工作時間」的社工和學生輔導教師，他們自己則可能和當地機構完全沒有聯繫。

## 總結──對學校與家庭聯繫的建議

基於學校在社區中的角色，家庭與學校聯繫有很多目的。似乎大部分本地學校將努力放在以學生校內學習和行爲基礎的聯繫，然而一些英童及國際學校以家庭的積極支持作爲校內教育不可缺少的部分。

學校假若想發展家庭學校合作，必須看清楚現行學校內家庭與學校聯繫活動的效果和影響，找出成功的地方，和須彌補的缺點和漏洞，可以參考在附錄列出的 8 個學校與家庭聯繫範圍，以協助訂立家庭和學校工作的方向和優先次序。

所有的聯絡和聯繫都可能有用，但是它們有效與否視乎如何推行。當然有些活動可以達到更多目的，例如，安排一個嘉年華會，有學生、家長和教師參加，可以達到學習、溝通、康樂、建立關係和合作等目標，這樣使學校組織和參與的人都會有成長。

當爲家長安排活動時，學校須考慮家長的能力和興趣，須強調他們的參與和貢獻。如果家長明白他們所做的對子女、學校和社會都有用時，他們會有成就感，和願意再參與。同樣，家長給予學校的意見和貢獻，均應予以回應或致謝，這樣家長才會感到學校重視其貢獻。

透過活動，家長對教育的興趣、效能感和責任感可以提高。讓家長「感受他們可以勝任」比「告訴他們做什麼」可能更有效。在協助學校的同時，家長更認識學校、認識其他家長、改善他們和子女的關係、提高自尊、和達致個人成長。

不過很多家長受到忙碌工作的負累，家長和子女缺乏溝通和歡樂。學校或家長教師會舉辦的康樂活動（例如旅行）可以迎合有些家庭的需要，又可以製造機會讓教師和家長在歡樂氣氛中會面。

要增進家庭與學校合作，可以進一步探討在學科或家庭生活教育學習過程的合作。一方面，這些合作和學生學習有直接關係，另一方面，這些活動可以較經常舉行，令各方面得益。一個例子是讓學生製作中史「中日戰爭」專題報告時訪問自己的祖父母。

通過在家長組織中的經驗分享和家長教育活動，學校可以協助促進家長的成長。雖然學校在教育家長時，須消耗資源，不過，當家長管教子女的技巧增加，他們和學校的關係改善後，家長便會更加支持學校，學生的學習效果因而提高，最終可能令學校得益。

有關當局和學校可能須說服教師如果缺乏家長教育和參與，學生問題不易解決，教育效果亦難達理想。每間學校的文化不同，對不同的家庭與學校聯繫方法的接受也不一樣，不可能有單一建議適合所有學校。對一些學校來說，開始時推行低層次的家長參與比較合適，可以透過聚會和學校刊物，較多及較清楚通知家長有關學校和學童的消息，同時邀請家長多參加學校活動，引起他們對學校教育的興趣。對部分學校來說，家長可能準備好協助學校運作，建議學校政策，和設立家長教師會。據估計現時很少學校願意及準備好讓家長出任校董，正常來說，高層次的眞正合作是需要低層次廣泛家長參與的支持。

最後，一位校長評論學校提供甚麼「家庭與學校活動」不是最重要，最重要的是個別教師對「家庭與學校合作」和接觸家長時時的態度。

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# 附錄一

## 學校與家庭聯繫的方式

### A　資訊傳遞

#### A 1家長大會（新生輔導／家長日／家長夜）

新生輔導通常在暑假末期或新學期的第一星期，爲新生和他們的家長舉行，校方向家長介紹學校歷史、目標、政策、規例、課程、教學方法和重點、測驗和考試制度、輔導工作、獎勵方式、聯絡方法等，亦在會上向家長介紹主要人物，包括學校社工或學生輔導教師。有時，亦會讓家長在學校四周圍看看，以瞭解設施，這安排甚爲家長歡迎。有些學校將新生輔導安排在十月底或十一月初，因爲到時家長對學校認識較多，可以提問一些實際問題和校長或教師討論，亦可能安排小組討論以達到雙向的溝通，有些學校以這機會向家長表明他們在子女教育方面的重要角色。

大部分學校通常一年舉辦一兩次家長日／夜。家長日在小學和中學較普遍，而家長夜則在幼稚園中較普遍。很多學校在第一學期考試後舉辦家長日／夜，家長會被邀到校面談和領取子女成績表。另外，亦有些學校在考試前安排家長日／夜，這樣可避免教師和家長面談時只集中考試結果，亦可減輕學生和家長會見教師時的壓力。

家長日／夜以不同形式進行。除與家長面談外，有些學校會舉辦以教導子女或前途爲題的講座、學生習作／學校活動／家庭生活教育材料展覽、書展、錄影帶放映，親子活動等。學校亦會利用這機會去獲得家長對學校運作的意見，有些學校在家長日／夜前發出問卷給家長，以搜集有關學生的資料和家長對校政的意見，在家長日／夜校長就可以回應家長的關注。在其中一間學校，學生須爲班主任塡寫一份表格，供家長日與家長面談時使用，表格包括學生過往和現在的成績，學生朋友的姓名和學生對面談的期望等。

家長大會可以是全體家長的會議，或者只是某一班別的學生家長會議。爲K1，K3，P1，P6和S1家長安排的家長大會比其他各級家長爲多。除新生輔導外，家長大會主要是關於學生前途問題，包括入學、選科和公開考試。有時亦會爲某些家長召開特別會議，例如，一間學校安排和一些成績突出或有進步的學生家長會面。家長比較喜歡在星期六或日出席會議，這些聚會的時間十分影響家長出席率，因爲香港人的生活繁忙。有些學校當家長和教師面談時，會爲他們安排託兒，這安排甚受歡迎。

#### A 2學生成績表

學生成績表主要以學業爲主，對學生的個人和社交發展意見不多，有些家長認爲他們應該由學校得到這些資料。有些幼稚園每星期向家長提供學生學習進度報告，這樣使家長經常明瞭其子女學習情況。一間中學的成績表上，有爲家長而設的空格，去塡寫對子女的意見。另外一間學校，除班主任和教師塡寫意見外，學生和家長亦可以塡寫自己意見。還有一間學校，設計了一張學生行爲紀錄卡，以通知家長有關學生在校行爲，學生行爲不論好壞，都在卡上呈現。

#### A 3學生手册

一般小學和幼稚園均普遍使用學生手册去通知家長有關家課、測驗、考試和學童的行爲。很多手册設有特別項目讓教師和家長去溝通和交換意見。這些項目可能設有空位，或一系列題目由教師和家長去評核學生在家中和學校的行爲。部分學校亦以手册去記錄學生操行或缺點。

家長，特別是幼稚園和小學家長，會被要求每日或每周閱讀和在子女的手册上簽名，以建立家庭和學校的聯繫，使用學生手册時遇到的問題如下：

a．有些學生不恰當地使用手册（例如：他們並未將全部家課列出），

b．有些家長並不閱讀或在手册上簽名，

c．有些學生冒家長簽名，

d．可能需要教師不少時間去檢查手册，

e．有些教師要求家長不要在手册上寫上某些項目，以免校長查看手册時知道。

因此建議教師要確保學生恰當地使用手册，而家長要定期簽署，這些良好的習慣可在學生入學時就養成。家長義工及學生可以協助教師檢查手册。有些學校會在家長日要求家長提供簽名樣本以防學生冒簽。

#### A 4學校通告

本研究發現通告一般用來通知家長有關學校活動和措施。使用通告時遇到的問題如下：

a．有些家長不理會通告，

b．有些家長由於教育程度低，不明白通告，

c．有些學生忘記叫家長簽署通告，或根本遺失了通告，

d．有些學生冒認家長簽名，

e．有些教師認爲從學生收回所有回條十分花時間。

以上問題似乎在“低派位級別”的學校特別嚴重。有些學校會通過學生手册去提醒家長去閱讀和簽署學校通告。另一間學校在學期初派發塑膠文件套給每位家長去保存通告，套上印有學校電話以便家長在有需要時聯絡學校。一些中學生家長認爲所有通告都應附上回條，因爲子女可能由於各種原因不給他們看通告。

有些家長認爲學校通告和學生手册是學校和家庭溝通的基本形式，但不應該取代教師和家長的直接接觸。

## A 5學校刊物（校訊、雜誌、小册子）

在幼稚園、小學和特殊學校，學校刊物並不常見。刊物可能以校訊、雜誌、小册子形式出現，特别爲家長而設，或爲大衆而設，出版頻率可能是每年、每季、每月或每周一次。

校訊是和家長聯繫的較普及的刊物之一，可能由學校或家長教師會／家長會印發。從收回的校訊內容分析，可見校訊有以下目的：

a．增加家長對學校和其政策的瞭解，
b．建立家長和學生的歸屬感，
c．提供家長教育，
d．提高學校的形象，
e．表揚和讚賞學生和家長的努力。

以下爲一系列所搜集到的內容：

(i) 個人的信息／文章，來自
- 校長
- 教師（例如：部門主管）
- 家長
- 學生（例如：領袖生長；學生會會長；活動中得奬的學生）
- 校友
- 社區人士（例如：警方聯絡主任；社區中心主任）
- 家長教師會主席／委員
- 學校社工／學生輔導教師

(ii) 有關學校的消息
- 學校年報
- 學校組織和歷史
- 介紹學校職員
- 學校活動
- 學生在公開考試的成績和進入大學的成績
- 新的課程、校政和措施
- 學生進修和就業機會
- 家長活動
- 家長對學校的意見及學校的回應

(iii) 讚賞／認同
- 在學習、課外活動、品行、服務中有出色表現的學生
- 任義工和捐贈的家長
- 教師的努力和貢獻

(iv) 家長教育

這一部分主要轉載有關題目的文章，及分享家長和教師的經驗，內容包括：

- 時事（例如：學童自殺；書包過重）
- 小學和幼稚園的分别
- 考試技巧
- 學習問題或學習技巧
- 暑期工或善用餘暇
- 如何輔導子女結交異性
- 均衡飲食
- 介紹家庭福利的資源

爲家長印發刊物遇到的問題如下：

a．有些家長並不閱讀刊物，
b．有些家長因知識水平低而不能閱讀刊物，
c．不容易吸引家長去撰寫文章。

雖然有些學校會由家長協助搜集和編輯文章，大部分學校將出版的責任放在教師身上。有些學校用額外資源去聘請公司負責刊物的設計和排版，以減少教師的工作。

某些學校的刊物內容和設計均十分有水準，亦設立委員會去負責刊物不同部分的工作，刊物內有遊戲設計、問答，和加入插圖、卡通，內容富教育性，對家長和學生均有用。這樣當然可以吸引學生，甚至知識水平低的家長去閱讀，更可以提高學校形象。爲邀請家長撰寫文章，有些學校會在學期初發出問卷去徵詢家長意見，並會個别聯絡那些有興趣撰寫文章的，有些學校亦會請學生鼓勵其家長寫文章。一間學校爲感謝家長撰稿，發出感謝狀。

有些學校以刊物表揚學生的優越成績，看來那些學生成績一般的家長並不能因閱讀這些刊物而得益。

有一個幼稚園團體，由一班全職非教學的員工去負責學生和家長的刊物。看來一批學校共用資源去出版刊物，可能行得通。

有些中學印製小册子給小學家長，然而有些小學校長不願意協助分發這些小册子，看來家長在爲子女選擇學校方面，得到很少資料。

## A 6學校概覽

爲增加家長對學校的認識，一間學校特别爲家長預備一本學校概覽，這概覽手册一如學生手册，但加上家長需要知道的基本學校資料。

## A 7家長佈告版

一間小學設立一家長佈告版，名爲"家長牆"，旨在使家長留意和好好利用社區的資源，"家長牆"上有新聞、海報、信件、通告或學校和社區中心活動，亦貼上教導子女須知、家庭與學校合作的信息和學校通告，利便家長在等候子女放學時可以閱讀。

## A 8熱線

有些學校設立電話熱線，讓家長隨時提出疑問或意見，家長似乎不計較他們向誰提出意見，只要他們的信息得以傳遞。在一間學校，一組教師放學後輪流接聽熱線。另外一間學校設有一熱線讓家長聯絡訓導處，效果令人滿意。不過有些家長寧願選擇較直接的方法，而不會在電話錄音機上留言。

## A 9校長致家長的信

一間學校的校長會定期致信家長，這些信件的語

氣十分友善，目的在於與家長建立一良好關係，並獲得他們在教育子女和支持學校活動中合作，信件並附上回條以確保家長收到及閱讀信件，家長亦可以利用回條塡寫意見和回應，校長並將這些家長意見轉告敎師。

## B討論個別學生的問題

### B 1 非正式個人接觸

小學和幼稚園家長如果接送學生，會有較多機會和敎師傾談。有些學校鼓勵家長參加學生集會或聆聽廣播，因而他們對學校更認識。有時家長會在校門或操場遇到校長；這些家長亦有機會和其他家長交換有關學校和學生學習的意見，明顯地，他們對學校認識較深，亦和學校關係較好。

有些學校採取"開門政策"以接待家長，他們歡迎家長在上課前、午飯、下課後進入學校。部分學校更准許家長攜飯盒到校進午飯，這些家長有機會與敎師、其它家長和子女的同學交談。不過有些學校，由於各種原因，不准家長進入學校範圍，家長會在校門被校工或在門口豎起的"家長止步"牌所阻止。一位小學家長曾說他的子女開學後幾個月她仍未知道誰是班主任。不少小學生家長不滿小學不能和幼稚園般對待家長。

一間學校表示他們在放學後安排兩位敎師當値解答家長疑問，家長在學期初就獲通知有關安排，這安排看來甚受歡迎，而亦提供機會讓學校去搜集家長的意見和建議。另一間學校表示他們設定每日的第一堂爲訓導敎師會見家長的時間。

### B 2 個別會見

敎師或家長均可主動要求會見對方，這是一個用來處理個別學生問題的普遍方法，不過很多時這些會見爲家長和學生都造成壓力，家長會因學生的學業成績不理想而不願意出席面談。一位家長好幾次表示學校好像懲敎署。一小學生將對家庭和學校合作描繪成一幅圖畫，他站在圖畫兩邊，分別被家長和敎師責罵。

對英童及國際學校來說，預約比較普通。其他學校多數在家長日舉行面談，通常是在每年一次的家長日，用 5 至15分鐘與班主任面談，而當日會分發學生成績表，學校認爲這樣做可以提高出席率。然而有些學校不會安排每年會見家長。某些中學的高年班只安排會見部分家長，小部分家長會在同日會見訓導敎師、輔導敎師、學校社工。同樣，在一些英童及國際學校，家長會在同日被安排會見幾位敎師。

通常家長投訴會見時間太短。其中一位家長說："我怎可以在五分鐘內明白我的子女在校情況？"有些家長不滿等待時間長和會面時間不適合。

有些家長認爲敎師未能提供需要的資料，一位中學生家長說："我想知道我的兒子如何和同學相處，但是他的班主任無法告訴我。"有些家長不滿他們在子女的整個中學階段只見過敎師一次。不過除了對會見的安排不滿外，家長均認爲在這些場合和其他家長傾談十分有用。

雖然中學生明白家庭與學校合作對他們學習的重要性，不過仍對會見存有負面看法；在不少情況下，他們感到壓力和擔心，認爲家長與敎師聯絡，即是使他們有機會知道"兩個世界最壞的地方"，中學生似乎不想家庭和學校聯手去管敎他們，他們喜歡更獨立，並擔心家長將他們的秘密告訴敎師，不過亦有學生感到敎師會協助他們與家長溝通。

有些中學生希望出席這些會見，雖然普遍不願意家長與敎師會面，他們希望知道會見時的情況，並對不公平的指責作出辯護。學生並希望討論內容較廣，不只集中學業。有些學生說家長沒有在會見後和他們再討論。有些學生希望他們可以選擇自己喜歡的敎師去會見家長，或有多過一位敎師會見家長，以提供他們在學校的學習和表現的全面看法。

幼稚園學生喜歡其家長到校和敎師面談，對初小學[illegible]一樣。家長感覺當子女進入小四至中一，他們開始不喜歡甚至阻止家長到校。

在家長日一日內會見所有家長，對敎師來說是十分疲累的。有一間學校的家長日延長至一日半，以加長會見時間。一間中學的敎師會見家長前會和每個學生談及有關會見，這安排爲所有出席小組討論的學生歡迎。

一位校長請敎師在會見家長時讚賞學生，她提出的規則是："如果想提出一個批評，同時須提出二個讚賞。"

### B 3 電話對話

這是最常用的家庭與學校聯繫的方法，普遍受敎師和家長的歡迎。不過有些敎師說有家長不喜歡這種聯絡方法。

奇怪的是有些幼稚園家長已相信"無消息就是好消息"。儘管電話聯絡有負面含義，有一間學校開始用電話通知家長有關學生的良好行爲和進步。一位小學敎師說她時常致電家長表達其對學童健康的關注。

這聯絡方法面對的困難，包括學校的電話線路不足和學童蓄意截斷電話線。

一位校長表示其學校規定班主任每月致電五位家長，並設計一簡單表格以記錄談話內容，這樣可確保家庭和學校的緊密聯繫。

一間小學在聖誕假期時有班主任致電家長，電話談話之前，敎師會以問卷問及家長其子女在家的行爲，談話後，敎師須塡寫談話信息，家長是否願意協助家長敎師會務，家長的要求和敎師的建議。第二階段是在復活節期間由資深敎師致電兩位由班主任揀選出的學生，作爲跟進。這種做法可能十分有用，不過

在香港並不普遍。

## C家長參與子女的學習

### C 1親子活動

搜集資料顯示學校舉辦親子活動的目的如下：

a．改善家長與學校溝通，
b．改善家長與學生溝通，
c．協助家長瞭解子女學習方式，
d．提供教師機會明瞭個別家長如何和子女交往，
e．使家長認識其他家長及其子女，
f．增進學童之間的友誼。

親子活動通常在星期六或日舉行，內容包括：

表演（例：話劇，卡拉 OK）
比賽（例：父子活動，復活節咭設計，花燈設計，堆沙遊戲）
遊戲日，嘉年華，日營
旅行，燒烤，遊船河，外地旅遊
聖誕節慶祝，生日會
聯誼活動

爲鼓勵學童父親出席活動，有些學校會發出通告，要父母親均簽署回條。另外，有些活動會特別爲父親和子女一起參與而設計。

中學生不歡迎親子活動，而幼稚園學生卻表示歡迎。幼稚園學生會盼望父母親參加親子活動；可惜，部分家長不能出席。

對於一些幼稚園教師來說，設計好的親子活動並不容易，他們希望在這方面得到較多的訓練。

### C 2觀課

有些家長被邀到校觀察教師上課情況，因而可以明白如何在家中協助子女學習。不過這方法並不普遍，只在一些幼稚園和特殊學校實行。有一間幼稚園安排四至五位家長爲一組去觀察上課情況，家長會在觀察前選定日期，家長普遍歡迎這做法，開始時教師感到有些壓力，不過其後已能習慣。有一間學校播放上課錄影帶給家長觀看。

### C 3家長參與改善學生學習、行爲

有些學校舉辦獎勵計劃去改善學生行爲。最近發現有不少計劃有家長參與，這些計劃一方面可以改善家長和子女的溝通和關係，另一方面可以令家長明白他們應該並能夠協助其子女學習。

有些學校舉辦學習活動，須由學生和家長共同參與，活動可能和學科或家庭生活教育有關。有一間學校爲中一學生而設的家庭生活教育，其中數節須家長參與，例如，學生須找出其家長的期望，填寫及表達他們對家長的感覺和感激。有一間幼稚園發給家長一份檢查表格，家長須每日填寫子女的表現。廉政公署亦製作一些小學用的親子教材，以聯繫教師和家長，合力提高子女的德育。

有些學校設計行爲活動，要求家長參與去發展子女的正確行爲。例如，小學的交齊功課計劃，中一學習指導計劃，中學的鼓勵及承諾計劃。

有些小學推行交齊功課計劃。有一間學校用兩個月去推行計劃，家長須提醒子女做功課，並檢查其功課，在表格上簽署。成績美滿的學生會得獎，家長會被邀出席頒獎給自己的子女。

中一學習指導計劃旨在由家長和學校合作，協助學生發展良好的學習習慣。首先，學生須填寫一份表格，包括個人資料，和通常學習習慣和問題，然後家長須每日填寫其子女何時放學回家、用多少時間做功課、溫習、看電視、有否根據時間表執拾書包等。另外亦提醒家長其檢查子女功課和手冊的責任。學生的進度由輔導教師監察，並時常和家長電話聯絡，給予建議。計劃的最後一個環節是由所有家長出席檢討會議，分享經驗和意見。鼓勵及承諾計劃是由家長首先提出，再由學校採用的，家長可自由參與。家長和學生須承諾在某一段時期履行一些有關教與學的行爲，並由校長，班主任、同學和家長在承諾書中作出鼓勵。

## D培養家長對學校的興趣和瞭解

### D 1學校活動典禮

每年學校會舉辦一些活動或典禮，包括：開放日、頒獎日、畢業典禮、運動日、水運會、嘉年華會、音樂會、歌唱比賽、步行籌款、籌款賣物會、新年聚會和聖誕聯歡。

家長出席與否似乎視乎家長的背景、活動的安排和學校有否盡力邀請家長。

邀請家長，特別是中學家長殊非易事。有些校長認爲要較多家長出席，學校須讓更多學生參與有關活動，無論作爲參加者、表演者或工作人員。如果子女領獎的話，家長較可能會出席。學校普遍以邀請咭或通告邀請家長出席活動。不過較有效的方法是由學生邀請家長出席，一中學校長向學生強調家庭與學校合作的重要，並去說服學生親自邀請父母出席活動。然而很多家長投訴子女就讀的小學和中學並無邀請他們出席活動。一位家長說："實在無必要舉辦大型開放日，我只想到子女學校看看。"

一些喜歡出席學校活動的家長說他們可以有機會認識其他家長和子女的同學，他們亦希望知道子女如何和同學交往，教師如何對待其子女。出席活動的家長希望會晤教師，特別是班主任，他們認爲和子女一起出席學校活動，可改善父母與子女的溝通。

有些學校邀請家長協助典禮或活動，如：任評判、主持人、啦啦隊員、或頒獎給學生，某些學校更邀請家長參與運動比賽。

### D 2家長教師會／家長會

在小組討論和校長提供資料中，得到不少有關家長教師會／家長會的做法和意見，其成立目的包括下列：

a．提高教育質素
b．提高學校聲譽
c．增加校政透明度
d．增加家長、學生、教師對學校的歸屬感
e．作爲家長和教師的聯絡點
f．給予家長在學校一個認可地位
g．給予家長互相認識的機會
h．改善學生福利
i．改善政府教育政策
j．服務社羣

在小組討論中識別出來經營家長教師會的方法如下：家長教師會獨立註册可以提高權力和財政地位；一個具悠久歷史的家長教師會由全體教師輪流任職；家長教師會可設計有意義的活動由兩方共同推行；一些家長執委認爲要提高家長參與很簡單，就是致電個別家長，邀請出席活動。

家長歡迎設立家長教師會，家長和學生均認爲參與家長教師會活動可以改善親子關係，有些學生問及他們應否在家長教師會中佔一位置。

一九九三至九四學年家長教師會得到明顯關注，因爲在一九九四年三月一日，教育署方面數字顯示設有家長教師會／家長會或有籌委會的學校有222間，但在一九九三年九月一日只有129間。參與家長教師會籌備工作的教師表示工作量大，他們指出這時期，家長參與不多，所以大部分責任落在教師身上。

不少中學教師認爲學校須設一職位去處理與家長有關的事宜，以減少教師工作量。一位教師表示："我知道家長參與的重要，不過我並沒有空餘時間去做，我因此感到內咎。"

一位家長教師會的教師委員說多年前，他和家長共事時缺乏信心，現在她對工作已有信心，並認爲此工作有助於她的成長，要做好工作，她認爲自己要成爲家長和學校的橋樑。

兩位受訪問的中學校長表示，家長教師會的家長代表有很多各類建議，而未能瞭解學校的限制，因此他們須過濾這些建議及技巧地拒絕其中一些意見。

一間學校特別爲在校當值家長安排一房間做辦事處，並認爲這樣可以加強家長教師會的聯絡工作。

各方面對家長教師會的其它批評如下：有些學校社工認爲家長教師會工作"表面化"；有些家長並不知道其子女學校設有家長教師會；甚多家長不滿在家長教師會活動中未能會晤班主任；有人批評家長教師會只爲一小撮家長而設；有些校監擔心其干涉校政或用作政治工具；一位區議員批評一家長教師會未能干預學校開除學生的錯誤政策。

### D 3同班聯絡

在新生輔導及家長日／夜中，有些學校安排班主任同一時間和班上學生的家長見面，教師可以報導學生學習的情況，對有關問題（如入讀中學）提供意見，並和家長討論他們關注的問題，有時個別家長會留下和教師談及其子女。

這類安排似乎受到家長歡迎，因爲：第一，他們可以和班主任相處時間長一些，以瞭解子女的學校生活；第二，家長和教師可以有雙向溝通；第三，家長可以和其他家長談論共同關注的問題。然而這種同班聯絡的方法並不普遍。有些教師，特別是經驗淺的教師，沒有信心和能力去處理一大班家長，會議上常被個別關注其子女問題的家長帶離主題。某些教師對自己班上的學生並不瞭解，不能給予家長詳盡資料。一些學校會派出教師去協助這些班主任主持會議。

有一間國際學校在全校設立一名爲"Klassenpflegschften"的班組織，以聯繫班上的家長、班主任和有關的科目教師，目的在改善學生在校和家中的個人和學業成長，會議讓家長和教師分享想法，意見和經驗，並增加雙方的瞭解，和協助解決問題。

整體來說，家長喜歡同班會議多於全校會議。如果學校可以提供機會給同屬一班的家長，使他們互相認識，可能家長出席全校活動的機會也會提高，因爲他們可以會晤朋友。

## E協助學校運作

### E 1家長協助

除英童及國際學校外，在運作方面尋求家長協助的學校並不普遍。本研究所搜集到家長協助學校的例子如下：

a．協助課堂教學，如
  — 示範（如：製作新年點心）
  — 講故事
  — 分享經驗（如：由一位任消防員的父親）
  — 小學中午前補習班
b．協助課外活動，如
  — 小狼隊領隊
  — 擔任興趣班／暑期補習班導師
c．協助特別活動，如
  — 嘉年華會設攤檔
  — 綜合表演中爲表演者做服裝
  — 協辦學校賣物會
  — 親子營中領遊戲
  — 遊戲日中攝影
  — 研討會中任講者
  — 典禮上頒獎

— 比賽中任評判
— 運動日任評判

d。協助教師在外出時看管學童，如
— 學校旅行日
— 音樂節
— 牙醫保健
— 參觀圖書館／學校／公園

e。協助日常校務，如
— 在圖書館／小食部協助
— 檢查學生手冊
— 處理學生福利申請
— 維持校巴站秩序
— 安排校巴和跟車人手
— 校門附近當値

f。協助家長教育，如
— 邀請前學生家長向幼稚園學生講述小學生活
— 新生輔導時解答家長問題

有些學校發出通告給家長問及他們是否願意，和何時能夠抽空協助，然後學校會個別聯絡有興趣的家庭。有一間學校保存一份有關家長參與和服務的紀錄，曾協助學校的家長會收到獎座／紀念品，或在學校通訊上致謝。

家長的參與可爲學校帶來額外的人力。不過一位校長認爲教師未必立刻感到效果，一些教師關注能否找到合適的家長來協助。

不少家長表示如果有時間，一定會協助，除爲子女學校作出貢獻外，他們認爲這樣做可以學到東西，並更明白學校和加強歸屬感。

一間小學的家長在早上上課前協助教師領興趣組，在職的家長亦能參與，很多家長協助英語和普通話班，他們均可以勝任幫助教師辦這些班和看管學童，而教師亦能向家長學習。

### E 2 籌款活動

籌款活動在有些學校十分普遍，特別是英童及國際學校和"名校"，活動包括有：步行籌款、賣物會、綜合表演、抽獎或只是簡單捐助。這些活動可能由學校或家長教師會／家長會舉辦。近年不少學校以籌款方法，爲禮堂班房安裝冷氣設備。有些學校邀請家長參與步行籌款，除了籌得款項外，還可以提高家長對學校的歸屬感。

## F 提供家長教育和發展的機會

### F 1 家長教育

家長教育並非本研究的重點，不過在小組討論中可識別到有關的意見和策略。

有些校長和教師顧慮他們應否負起教育家長的責任，因爲他們主要的角色是教育學生，而他們亦缺乏教育家長的技巧。不過有些曾參與家長教育的相信由於健康的家庭是有效教育的基礎，學校應該爲家長提供家庭生活教育。一位教師認爲一個學生在校五至七年，實在有充分時間讓學校去爲家長做些事。另一位教師認爲要幫助學生，須和家長合作才可解決問題。一位家長教育工作者說："學生的弱點和其家長一樣"，顯示家庭生活往往是兒童問題的根源。

雖然有以上的優點，本研究找不到學校設有推動家長教育的校內組織，參與的只是校長或一些熱心的教師，或來自輔導組的教師。一些學校倚賴他們所屬的辦學團體去提供訓練人力去推行較有系統的家長課程。有些教師表示其實不少社區的志願機構具有訓練的資源，不過看來這些資源並未被好好利用。

除舉辦座談及課程外，一家幼稚園借出書本給家長自修有關管教子女之道。

### F 2 家長組

本港少數學校也有家長組的設立，它們用以下不同方式組成：

a。面對相同問題的家長（如：單親組、自閉兒童家長組）

b。同班或同級家長

c。參加同一興趣班的家長

有些家長組被視爲可以建立家長間密切關係，和提供互相支持。家長可以就相同問題交換意見和感受，另外，又可以認識其他家長和子女的同學。問及喜歡參加由學校還是志願機構舉辦的家長組時，家長多數選擇學校。

對有些學校而言，家長組的成立使學校容易獲得家長意見、建議和協助。

有些家長組由學校社工或輔導教師組織，以協助家長教導子女。亦有從前曾經參加過家長組的家長被邀做組長主持討論。

有些家長組開始時由教師組織，教師會擔任小組討論的領袖或秘書。其後家長會接手負責其組別和安排活動，他們會學習子女在校唱的歌，他們也會成立互助小組去照顧別人的子女，或參與社區服務。

有些學校提供開會場地給家長組，學校爲協助家長聯絡，亦會印製電話冊給家長，這樣可以協助家長互相聯絡，甚至直到子女畢業後。

## G 徵求家長在決策和釐定政策的意見

### G 1 家長問卷

不同的學校爲不同目的而設計問卷，有些爲搜集家長對學校事宜的意見，例如，校規、新政策（如：成立家長教師會）、課程、課外活動或功課量；有些用作搜集有關學生的資料，例如：學生情緒、社交技巧、家中行爲、餘暇活動或和家人關係，另外，問卷亦會問及家長的期望和要求，以便學校計劃適合的活

動。

有些學校在家長日派發問卷給家長，家長可以在等待會見教師時塡寫問卷。有些學校在會見家長前分發問卷，於是問卷中提及的問題可在面談時討論。有些學校將問卷結果刊登在刊物上，一間學校在校訊中設有問答欄以回應家長的意見。

### G 2家長任校董會成員

除英童及國際學校外，家長甚少參與校董會。有些校監擔心家長可能干涉校政，他們認爲現時家庭和學校合作甚少，家長任校董實在時機未成熟，他們亦擔心家長任校董未必能代表其他家長的意見。參加小組討論的家長不大有興趣參與學校管理，不少人認爲這類專業事宜應由校方處理。

一間有悠久家長教師會歷史的學校，家長教師會的主席和前主席均爲校董，他們可能也是校友，這情況下，家長教師會、校友會和校董會關係密切。

家長亦有以其他方式參與學校管理，他們可能參與一些正式或非正式成立的諮詢小組，在以下事宜上建議校長，包括在聘請教職員、學生行爲、個性發展、就業和對測驗、考試和分流教學的意見。

### G 3意見箱

不少學校設置意見箱讓家長將意見傳達給學校，信件通常由校長處理。如果學校設有家長教師會或家長會，信件可能首先由委員處理，再轉交有關的學校負責人去回覆。

一般來說，意見箱不甚受歡迎，很少家長使用意見箱，家長的原因包括"我覺得寫意見麻煩"，"對急事無用"，"這只是間接和單向的溝通方法"等。

一間學校的教師不滿意見箱由校監設立，而並未諮詢教師意見。

有些校長認爲家長須具名建議，不過一位校長認爲匿名方式可以鼓勵家長寫意見，校長應可判斷資料的眞實性。最後，値得留意的是有些學生歡迎在其學校設立意見箱。

## H主動參與和支持家庭和社區生活

### H 1家訪

家訪在村校和特殊學校這些班上學生人數較少的學校比較普遍。家訪可令班主任瞭解學生的家庭背景，觀察學生在家中情況，與家長建立良好關係和建議家長管教子女的方法。在學生人數比較多的普通學校，通常由學校社工或學生輔導教師探訪個別個案的學生。

有一間中學推行一個政策，班主任須每年作出最少六次家訪，班主任有指引依從，雖然家訪比例不高，不過仍被認爲可以加強家庭和學校的瞭解。家訪中，教師除討論學生問題外，還可以向家長解釋新的學校政策和搜集他們的建議，以便作出改善。

近年家訪比以前少見，可能由於以下原因：第一，教師認爲以電話聯絡家長較方便，不須家訪也可以討論和解決很多問題。第二，對一位教師，特別是女教師，到陌生環境探訪陌生家庭可能有危險。第三，不少母親日間外出工作。第四，有家長認爲家訪可能會侵犯他人私隱，而不受家長歡迎。

當問及他們歡迎家訪與否時，一位熱心家長說："家訪十分好，不過電話聯絡已足夠"。不過一些家長曾經受家訪，他們都十分欣賞，認爲家訪表示學校眞正關心和願意和他們聯絡，他們特別感激家訪帶來的鼓勵和精神支持。有些母親表示未被家訪，不過希望有機會。

調查顯示，似乎可以進一步利用家訪去加強家庭學校的瞭解。

### H 2聯誼活動

聯誼活動在英童及國際學校和特殊學校較常見，甚少出現在幼稚園，在小學和中學則更少見。另外，聯誼活動多出現於設有家長教師會或家長會的學校。聯誼活動包括：

— 畢業生和其家長的聚會
— 戶外康樂營
— 旅行燒烤
— 旅遊
— 遊船河
— 晚餐，和
— 聖誕聯歡農曆新年團拜

有些家長認爲聯誼活動可以將家長和教師接觸的負面形象改變過來，並爲將來家長參與打好基礎，他們亦喜歡康樂性質的活動，和家長們的分享。一位家長教師會活動組織者認爲，可以促進家長與子女關係和子女成長。至於這些活動和促進子女的學習是否有關連並非家長的關注。不過，不少家長希望在活動中遇到班主任，如果班主任不出現，他們會十分失望。

有些中學教師不願意參加這些活動，一些參與推動的教師亦以那些教師工作量大爲理由而不找他們一同出席。

（錄自 Shen, Pang, Tsoi, & Yung, 1994）

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UE exam, which were released before those of other exams).

### *Students' response in spite of careers teachers' all-out effort*

In order to enable students to make informed choices in their JUPAS application, some careers teachers organize 10-15 talks each academic year, the topics of which are different from the previous year's, so that students will be able to attend 20-30 talks during their two matriculation years. The organization of talks is not the snag of the problem if past students of the school, who have benefited from activities of the kind themselves, can be speakers at such talks; or if the tertiary institutions, having entered into a keen competition of propaganda and publicity, are willing to send representatives to give talks. The crux of the problem, however, lies in students' attendance at the talks. Not many students are enthusiastic about activities which do not have immediate, to-the-moment relevance in their life. Now they are not required to make JUPAS choices until S.7 (a change which is no doubt justifiable), six months before their examinations; and they are allowed to change any choice up to one month before the release of the Hong Kong Advanced Level Examination (HKALE) redults. To the students, this means that there is no urgency or need to attend talks and functions on careers. Careers teachers often find themselves either trying to lure students or dragging them to attend talks and mock interviews or to participate in careers quizzes. The result is: Careers teachers inevitably lose out to the tempting offers of other extra-curricular activities or to the tiring but relevant and useful supplementary lessons.

Display of posters or news of current seminars or new courses, careful compilation of newspaper cuttings or filing of careers literature in the Careers Room elicit no more than a passing glance. No matter how strategically placed and how easily accessible the Careers Room is, students find it boring to go to a room to learn about a world of possibilities that they are told will be theirs if they put effort in getting distinctions.

## Re-defining Careers Education

### *Careers education should be more than information on getting into the right course*

Educators would agree that a career is a way of life rather than a way to earn money (Morgan, 1977, p.21) and that what employers need is not just a chartered engineer, surveyor or architect but a mature individual with a good understanding of himself, of his long-term career goal and of the field he is entering into. Above all, what all employers need most is somebody with qualities and abilities such as self-confidence, flexibility, adaptability, analytical and independent thinking skills, inter-personal skills, ability to communicate effectively, to give presentations, to persuade or debate with others, or challenge others' opinions in order to arrive at a feasible solution. Underlying all these, employers will only be satisfied with employees who have a positive working attitude which entails willingness to work hard, to start from a humble position, to undertake lowly tasks assigned and to respect courtesy in working relationships.

### *Careers education should not be postponed until tertiary education*

The qualities and skills required of a good employee cannot be developed within a short time. Work ethics cannot be cultivated overnight. Training must start in the formative years in secondary schools and, if possible, continue into tertiary institutions and into the working world. We cannot leave the job to the tertiary institutions. First, 85% of the 17-20 age group will join the work force after S.5. Second, the post-secondary institutions will find it dificult to correct wrong but entrenched attitudes towards careers. Third, there are only three years of undergraduate studies which are already packed with hard-pressed specific or professional training. Fourth, there is practical difficulty in implementing careers education in universities with their curriculum structures. If secondary schools with their more tightly-knit structure shirk the responsibility of starting training early and leave the duty to tertiary institutions or employers, then the Hong Kong labour force will continue to suffer.

### *Careers education should be education for life*

In the interest of the future of the youngsters, educators should therefore see that careers education, as argued in this paper, is not what is practised in most Hong Kong schools nowadays. Careers education should be education for life. Some may say that this is precisely what schools have been doing, through their curriculum and extra-curricular activities! What makes careers education different, however, is that it must be education implemented with conscious and special emphasis on the working world so that at an early stage of their education, students will be alerted to all the connections they have to make to their working life.

### *No teacher should deny their role in careers education*

It is according to this definition that careers education should be implemented as an integral part of education in secondary schools and that every teacher in the school should see themselves as a careers teacher. Just as nobody will dispute that every teacher is a moral education teacher, a counsellor, a discipline teacher; so nobody can refuse to be a careers teacher.

Concerted efforts in the school are the only solution when we consider the real meaning of careers education and when we bear in mind the difficulties confronting the three or five assigned careers teachers. First of all, no teacher should avoid being a careers teacher. A teacher provides a role model within his own profession. He is the most convincing example of how a worker should behave. Moreover, a teacher's qualities such as self-confidence and skills such as communication skills are displayed to the students all the time, in every lesson and activity in which he is involved.

### *Careers teachers may not happen to be students' "most trusted counsellors"*

When students need help, they are more inclined to seek out those teachers teaching them or having taught them, particularly those with whom they have built a trusted relationship. There may be only three to five careers teachers in a school of about 1,300 students. Therefore, no teachers should ever let slip any opportunity of helping students who approach them and listen to them, for they are the trusted counsellor who can help the students to find out about their own personality, aptitudes, strengths and weaknesses. Teachers may not be experts, but class discussions, desultory talks, or communication through the students' weekly diary may all be ideal ways of helping students to get to know themselves better.

In the face of the bewildering choices ahead of them at S.3, S.5 and S.7, students have to make critical decisions for the life ahead. Some students may not even be aware of how the choice of stream can affect their future and may blindly follow their peers' decisions. Some students are pressurized by their parents' expectations. All "trusted counsellors" have the responsibility to guide students in making critical decisions, for they have better chances of convincing students of the negative effects of not considering their own inclination in making career choices. These teachers can also counsel the students on how to cope and discuss their interests and choices with their parents. Careers education provided in this way will not only equip students with the skills for making choices for themselves but also help them accept the responsibility and consequences of the choices made and learn to manage their own educational and vocational development.

### *A cross-curricular appraoch should be adopted for careers education*

The five or seven years of secondary schooling is an ideal time for a continuous exploration of oneself and of the various fields of work. Every teacher should try to create and make use of opportunities within their part of the curriculum for role exploration and identification. In these activities, they should aim at guiding and encouraging students to discover new interests, develop old ones and discard misconceptions. Teachers with rich life experiences and a keen awareness of the world are valuable sources of interesting and stimulating information. A few short comments made by them about the life of a doctor or a policeman in class when appropriate may inspire more enthusiasm in careers than a one-hour careers talk. There must be encouragement to use all opportunities and all resources within teachers and across the curriculum; the reliance on the assigned careers teachers as the only source of information is a view that has to be changed.

As an example of how careers education across the curriculum can be done, the school debate team can set careers-related motions such as "an engineer contributes more to the world than a doctor". A debate on a motion of this kind can help both debaters and participants to clarify their thoughts as to whether they should opt for Applied Maths or Chemistry in S.6. In a more structured manner, E.P.A. teachers can initiate projects that require updating of information on various careers. The junior E.P.A. syllabus provides the most appropriate space for infusing careers education into the curriculum. Since students are expected to understand the structure of the government and the education system, this often inspires projects related to the biggest employer in Hong Kong and study opportunities.

Similarly, generic skills can only be effectively developed if they are included in the curriculum. Injecting more group work such as project work, in both junior and senior forms; more tutorials and discussions into the classroom will not only make transition to a higher level of education easier, but will train students to acquire the skills of working in a team, presenting themselves in public and communicating effectively using their interpersonal skills.

## The Way to Go: Some Suggstions

### *Provision of training in counselling*

Training in counselling is necessary for teachers if they are all to be engaged in the enormous task of guiding students. Training helps to ensure that teachers give guidance in the most proper and unbiased manner. One potential problem is due to the fact that teachers are successful examples of the academic world, and therefore tend to see no reason why a student should opt for a diploma course instead of a degree course; why a student should start working after S.5 instead of continuing on to S.6; or why a student

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# English Teachers' Attitudes: Comparison between the Veteran and the Novice

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A questionnaire on teachers' attitudes toward the use of English and the medium of instruction, and on their English proficiency was given to three groups of new English language teachers. Their responses were compared with those expressed by a group of veteran teachers in a similar study conducted two years ago. It was found that both groups of teachers had similar views even though their teaching experience differed. They all accepted the use of mixed code in teaching certain subjects and they considered the role of English language important in Hong Kong.

There was also an open-ended question in the survey and samples of writing were collected. The content was analysed to reveal what teachers considered to be ideal in a Hong Kong classroom. The writing was also analysed for linguistic performance by concordancing.

**資深與剛入職的英語教師對語文的看法**

這是個問卷調查報告，問卷的內容包括英語應用、教學媒介、英語程度以及有利英語教學的因素等。這份問卷在不同的場合派發給資深及剛入職的教師，以搜羅他們的意見。結果顯示無論是教齡十載的資深教師或是剛踏出教育學院的新丁，他們對混合語的看法、對語文應用的態度都是十分相近的。

## Introduction

Teacher's attitudes very often have important influence over the implementation of educational policies. The recent delay in the introduction of the Targets and Target-Related Assessment Initiative (now re-named Target-Oriented Curriculum) is a case in point ("Teachers Threaten," 1993). Thus it is crucial to listen to teachers' views on educational issues. A previous survey on English teachers' attitudes toward a number of issues in language education was conducted by Hirvela and Law in 1991. The present survey can be seen as a continuation of the 1991 survey. Both surveys reveal English teachers' views on the medium of instruction issue and the use of mixed code. The medium of instruction policy has not yet been properly implemented despite the recommendation of Education Commission Report No.4 (ECR 4) in 1990. The use of mixed code, which was criticized in ECR 4, is still prevalent in the so-called English medium schools while very little research has been done on the effects of mixed code teaching (Luke, 1992, p.115).

This study attempts to look into some key issues in English language education from the teachers' point of view and compares the opinions of two groups of teachers classified according to their teaching experience. The research questions are as follows:

1. whether veteran and novice teachers have different views on the use of mixed code,
2. whether these two groups have the same perception of their English ability,
3. how these teachers consider the role of English language in Hong Kong,
4. what teachers consider as ideal in an ELT class.

Most of the questions in this survey come from Hirvela and Law's survey, which makes it possible to compare the results of the two studies. While the subjects in the previous study were mainly experienced teachers, those of this survey were basically new teachers or teacher trainees, hence a comparison of attitudes between the "veteran" and the "novice".

## Data Collection and Analysis

In the school year 1992-93, a questionnaire consisting of 36 multiple-choice questions and an open-ended question was given to three different groups of teachers:

(a) participants of the Diploma Course in Teaching English Language in Secondary School, The Chinese University of Hong Kong (CUHK)

(b) teacher trainees in a College of Education

(c) participants of the Summer Induction Course for New Teachers at the Teachers' Centre.

The multiple-choice questions were computed for frequency counts and Chi-square analysis. The essay question, which provided information about the subjects' English ability, was holistically evaluated for content and style and then analysed for vocabulary usage using a concordancer[1].

## Findings and Discussion

A total of 77 copies of the questionnaire were returned with 72% respondents having less than one year of teaching experience. These teachers can be considered novices when compared with the respondents of the previous survey in which 79% had teaching experience ranging from 7 to 27 years (Hirvela & Law, 1991). This would be a useful point to bear in mind when comparing the opinions of these two groups. The following presents a profile of the respondents of the present survey:

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Sex Male = 19 Female = 58

Teaching posts held Certificate Master/Mistress = 8

Graduate Master/Mistress = 50

Teacher Trainee = 19

English grades in Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination (HKCEE)

A = 8% B = 23% C = 35%

D = 25% E = 5%

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The figures show that even though the sample is rather small, the proportion of male to female teachers is quite representative of the real world situation. The English grades of these respondents nearly conform to a normal distribution, which means that their English ability is not particularly high.

### *Use of English*

From this section of the paper onwards, the findings of the present survey are listed with those of the previous survey in the same table for easy comparison.

In general, there seems to be very little difference between the veteran and the novice. The majority of respondents reported that they sometimes / fairly often used English when speaking Cantonese with other Chinese. There was no difference between those getting good grades in the HKCEE and those getting poor grades.

Table 1: Use of English when speaking Cantonese

| | Veteran | Novice |
|---|---|---|
| Always | 1.7% | 1.3% |
| Often | 6.2% | 6.5% |
| Fairly often | 19.4% | 20.8% |
| Sometimes | 66.5% | 68.8% |
| Never | 5.2% | 2.6% |

The practice of using English when speaking Cantonese thus seems to be a common practice. Mixed use was quite acceptable to both groups (59.7% and 57.2%) as shown in Table 2. But there is a marked difference in the two groups among those not accepting mixed use of languages (38.3% vs 23.4%). Mixed code appears to have gained increasing acceptance even though 18.2% of the new teachers chose not to take side at all.

Table 2: Feelings about the mixed use of Cantonese & English

| | Veteran | Novice |
|---|---|---|
| Acceptable | 59.7% | 57.2% |
| Neutal | 1.6% | 18.2% |
| Unacceptable | 38.3% | 23.4% |

Overall speaking, this seems to suggest that the mixed use of Cantonese and English has become an accepted sociolinguistic practice. If we were to design an all-English curriculum, the attitudes of teachers would have to be taken into serious consideration. Without the willing co-operation of these front-line workers, the implementation of new classroom practices might run into difficulties.

To find out whether teachers' view on mixed use of Cantonese and English in their daily life has any relationship with their attitudes toward mixed code teaching in school, responses to Question 29 (What are your feelings about mixed use of Cantonese and English among Cantonese speakers?) were correlated with those of Question 35 (What, in general, is your attitude toward mixed code - mixture of English and Cantonese - teaching at the junior / lower secondary form level?) and Question 36 (What, in general, is your attitude toward mixed code - mixture of English and Cantonese - teaching at the senior / upper secondary form level?) (Table 3). The correlations were rather low, but nonetheless significant. This indicated that there was indeed some relationship between the two. Teachers had consistent opinions toward the use of mixed code, whether it was inside or outside the classroom.

Table 3: Correlations of attitudes

| | Q 35 | Q 36 |
|---|---|---|
| Q 29 | 0.28* | 0.24* |

* $p < 0.05$

### *Medium of instruction*

In general, the respondents seemed to favour the use of mixed code at the lower secondary level, especially those teachers whose own HKCEE English grades were poor (Grades A & B: 30% in favour;

Table 11: Frequency of content words

| Group A | | Group B | | Group C | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| N = 24 | | N = 19 | | N = 29 | |
| students | (68) | English | (35) | English | (50) |
| English | (33) | students | (30) | students | (43) |
| teaching | (27) | teaching | (23) | teaching | (23) |
| learning | (26) | teachers | (15) | language | (19) |
| language | (23) | class | (12) | materials | (19) |
| materials | (22) | classroom | (12) | classroom | (16) |
| classroom | (20) | language | (12) | learning | (16) |
| class | (19) | teacher | (12) | class | (14) |
| ideal | (19) | use | (11) | ideal | (14) |
| teachers | (16) | materials | (8) | teacher | (12) |

group - one amongst the longest and the best, is shown in Appendix I. Overall, the teachers' vocabulary was rather limited and the sentence structure lacked variety. Some of the sentence structures suggested "syntactic immaturity" (Gaies' term, 1980). This is a point which has to be taken into consideration when we think of entry requirements for teacher trainees in the Hong Kong Institute of Education. We need teachers who can write well to teach writing.

### *Criteria for an ideal ELT class*

The answers to the open-ended question were grouped under major points made. The following list shows what teachers considered ideal and the numbers in brackets show the frequency of occurrence of each criterion:

(a) smaller classes of 20-30 students (53)

(b) audio-visual materials, TV and tapes, for class use (28)

(c) language use in real situations, group work and activities (20)

(d) use only English in class (18)

(e) a flexible curriculum to suit the need of students (18)

(f) a well-written textbook at the right level (15)

(g) lively, resourceful teachers with a high English standard (14)

(h) not constrained by public examinations (5)

(i) teach grammar in appropriate situations (5)

(j) sharing of teaching experiences among teachers (4)

The first few points aptly summarize what most teachers consider as ideal in an ELT class. It must be reiterated here that these front-line workers have a good understanding of the practical situation. Their suggestions should be considered seriously when policies are formulated. For instance, the reduction of class size and the supply of audio-visual materials have been brought up by teachers since the introduction of compulsory education, but very little changes have been made. The ELT situation could be effectively improved if the authorities concerned would listen to classroom teachers.

## Conclusion and Implication

The comparison shows little difference in the pattern of English use between the two groups. That is to say, whether the respondents were experienced or new teachers, they have accepted the mixed use of Cantonese and English in both their daily life and in classroom instruction. They showed greater preference for using mixed code with some science and social science subjects, especially in lower secondary classes.

Now that the Education Department is determined to implement a clear-cut language policy, it would be vital to make sure that teachers feel comfortable with English. As shown in this survey, only about 20% felt comfortable using English with other Chinese. While teachers felt that English has a fairly strong role to play in Hong Kong affairs, only about one-third considered themselves good at using it in speaking and writing.

Moreover, the new teachers had a lower perception of their listening and speaking ability and they were less comfortable when using English with foreigners. Their written texts did not show a high level of language ability either. This is something to bear in mind when we prepare new teachers for the career. Since the majority of students learn their English from teachers, especially from teacher graduates of colleges of education (now The Hong Kong Institute of Education), it is a must to ensure that these teachers have a good standard of English and are willing to use it for instruction.

To upgrade the English proficiency of students, besides the input from teachers, exposure through audio-visual materials should be used. Since there is adequate funding for language enhancement, interesting materials of high quality should be produced and distributed to all schools.

With the medium of instruction, when the majority of teachers feel at ease using a certain amount of mixed code instruction for some subjects, it seems wiser to move to a clear-cut medium of instruction in a step-by-step fashion. Teachers' views should be gauged to form the basis of policy change, especially during the transitional period.

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## Note

[1] A concordancer is a computer program which scans text and finds occurrences of a particular word or phrase in it. The occurrences can be shown with the context ranging from a few words to a few lines. The program can also count the occurrences and word types among other functions.

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## Appendix 1

### 013

An ideal English language teaching classroom should provide the appropriate environment / authentic environment where students should use English as the sole medium of communication. The class size should be around 25. The materials used should be various that coloutul pictures are used to attract the interest of students. Then questions may be used to make them think and find out the solutions themselves. Students should be divided into groups where they may share their opinions and experiences among their peers so they may start talking and sharing with others. In class, active participation should be encouraged. They may also be encouraged to suggest any topics of interest in the English class.

### 026

A loop system room should be installed for the teaching of language function, pronunciation, and other language studies which sometimes teachers see the need of using listening tasks to carry out their objectives. Therefore teachers do not have to carry bulk cassette recorder one hand and teaching aides in other hand. Number of students should small to about 25-30 since spacious classroom and small number of students deserve the effective teaching activities, if possible. There should be a place in each classroom for storing teaching aids. Teacher can save time and walk into the classroom in time and he can go into the place to select the already packed material for the lesson. Overheaded projector and air conditioned system should be provided in the classroom. Television sets are installed for videoviewing and education TV programme. The curriculum planned should be flexible since it should bear in mind the learning ability needs, desire of our students beforehand. The type of examination is difficult to give any suggestion since the traditional education school system is examinat-oriented which is still prevailing. I would like the examination to be a kind somewhat pleasure-getting rather pressure-making.

### 064

An ideal English language teaching classroom should be creative responsive, full of interaction and active. The optimum size should be about 20-25 students. The learning materials and activities embrace a great variety of popular as well as advanced ones, whichever might arouse the attention and interest of the learners. Teachers should be fully supported by well-equipped facilities and a territory-wide resourceful computer network which is to keep teachers informed of the latest trend and materials in English teaching. To refresh teachers' language skills, a refreshers' course after a certain period of teaching is suggested. Examinations should be replaced by small tests during semesters.

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**寫作**

- 能寫記敍文和說明文；
- 能寫備忘錄和賀詞；
- 能寫普通的句子結構和字彙；
- 能寫不離題的一段文字。

**講說**

- 能講論有關學校和家庭生活的話題；
- 能描述歷史性或民間故事；
- 能報導學校或社會事件。

**聽力**

- 能聽懂有關個人或家庭的事情；
- 能領會以家庭、學校和社會爲題的短講的主旨；
- 能明白一篇內容和結構較複雜的故事；
- 能明白關於個人或家庭爲題的討論。

## 中文課程的學習目標——中五學生應有的水平

根據TOC的政策所示，中五學生應具有以下的中文水平：

**閱讀**

- 能閱讀本地報章、雜誌和文學作品；
- 能明白一篇文章的主題和重點；
- 能明白一篇文章的形式和修辭；
- 能閱讀參考書和索引。

**寫作**

- 能寫論說文和抒情文；
- 能寫報告和起草講辭；
- 能重組、綜合和延伸句子和篇章。

**聽力**

- 能明白日常生活中的對話；
- 能明瞭以家庭、學校、社會和國際事情爲題的報告；
- 能明白有關家庭、學校、社會和國際事務爲題的演說；
- 能聽懂有關於家庭、學校、社會和國際事務爲題的辯論。

**講說**

- 能參考一般話題如家庭、個人、學校和社會的對話；
- 能作有關家庭、個人、學校和社會爲題的報告；
- 能參與有關一般題目如個人、家庭、學校和社會的討論；
- 能發表有關個人、家庭、學校和社會的演說；
- 能辯論有關於個人、家庭、學校和社會的題目。

課程綱要和TOC所列目標，既然見諸文字，也就成廣義的文獻，雖然其性質和本源都跟上文的研究文獻有所不同。綱要和TOC的目標，固然擺放在四種語言活動裏，即聽、講、讀、寫，每種活動又按語言層面分字、詞、句、段、篇，形成縱橫組合的語言範疇。從而就不同程度提示應有水平的目標，不少是滙集有關教師的經驗和看法而成，是較主觀的判斷，與上文經由實驗或調查研究所得的內容不大相同。當然，教師最直接了解學生的情況，他們的經驗和意見，雖是直覺內容，往往異常可信，值得重視。不過，經驗到底是游離不穩的，須配以驗証，去蕪存菁，才能確保符合事實。

## 香港學生應有中文水平的一般意見

就教育司署發表，有關增強學生中、英文能力的報告中（教育署，1993），綜合了以下有關對香港學生中文能力的要求：

(1) 因中文是大多數香港市民在日常生活中應用的語言，藉以交流訊息、創作和思維，所以，有必要進一步增強學生的廣東話和中文寫作能力。

(2) 在香港，中文的其一功能在於凝聚使用中文的人成爲語言羣體，從而認同中國社會和文化。

## 總結和建議

總括而言，小六、中五的中文期望水平的研究都是很有價値的。雖然有些不是直接相關，但這些水平準則，都是基於兩項原則而成的：

(1) 學生在四種技能中所表現出來的語言能力和程度；

(2) 運用語言達到若干目標，即學生能用中文應

用在不同的情況以達到不同工作目標的能力。

然而，還有一些研究上的空缺有待塡補，以便全面了解整個情況，如：

(1) 尙須研究探討各級的聽力和講說能力；
(2) 對會話方面的研究尙嫌不足；
(3) 還未有足夠的研究去解釋中文應如何適應香港社會而作課程改革。

TOC 的建議頗能全面提供小一至中五的學習水平和目標。但其中有些目標沒有界定淸楚，也有不少重複的地方。

若抽離於具體的研究結果，集中看四種語文技能（聽、講、讀、寫）的意義，又發現在不同意見底下，有近似基礎：

(1) 四種技能雖同源於語文能力，但各具不同的活動方式：讀、寫是書面的，聽、說是口語的；讀、聽是吸收，寫、說是表達。
(2) 四種技能的發展，固然互有補益，如多讀有助於寫；多聽有助於講。但也不一定同步：能讀，不一定能寫；能聽不一定能講得同樣的好。這正好說出四種技能在生理與語文之間的相關與歧異。
(3) 四種技能都經過兩階段的發展：先是掌握語言系統的規律，然後到表情達意，社會應用。

綜觀來說，小六的水平，重點在掌握語言規律而中五則期望中文的聽、講、讀、寫，都能表情達意，符合社會應用的要求。

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# 小學中文寫作新教學法——全語文寫作教學

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很多學生認爲中文寫作是一件苦差。研究員爲了改變這現像，在一間小學試行全語文寫作教學法。該法能令課堂孕育一種有效的語言學習環境，引導學生主動地學習，給予學生較多交流的學習機會。初步實驗結果顯示學生的寫作能力有質與量的改善，學生積極參與寫作活動，老師也在批改作文時得到樂趣。

**A New Method in Teaching Chinese Writing in Primary Schools - The Whole Language Approach**

Many primary school pupils do not like composing in Chinese. The research project reported in this paper was designed to improve the teaching of Chinese writing in a primary school by using a new teaching method - the whole language approach. This approach created an effective language learning environment. It also helped learners to engage themselves in active learning and supported interactive learning. It was found that this method could enhance the writing abilities of the pupils of the school, both in quality and quantity. The pupils actively participated in writing activities and the teachers enjoyed marking their scripts.

## 寫作教學的問題

### 作文成了苦差

你見過孩子三五成羣，聚在一起，談個不停，樂也融融的情景嗎？你可否想過，他們不是正在表情達意，雄辯滔滔嗎？爲什麼一到上作文課時，他們卻一百八十度的轉變，咬着筆，苦着臉，煞費思量竟仍無從下筆呢？同是表情達意，爲何談天就是樂事，作文就成了苦差呢？

### 作文和改文沒有動機

學生沒法突圍而出，身爲教師的當然會想法子去幫助他們。爲著使學生易於掌握，教師會把題目定得更具體，更具指示性。爲免使內容離題，教師會與學生訂大綱，甚至提供內容概要。爲避免口頭語，教師會將需用的詞語板書黑板上，以供參考。好了！學生有了充足的「資源」，可以下筆自如了。這當然是爲學生解決了寫作上的難題，但卻又帶來了另一些問題。

孩子用的是相近的大綱，同類的詞語，於是，隨之而來的是千篇一律的樣板文章。一方面老師批改沉悶，另方面學生無從發揮，學生經常會有這樣那樣的問題：是否這樣寫？……第二段不接黑板上的大綱，可以嗎？……我還欠三行字，但已沒有東西可寫了，怎辦？……好了！字數夠了，收筆！……這些反映了甚麼？學生不是寫自己的文章，文中除了字跡是他們的外，其他多是老師的東西。他們只是爲老師拿筆，爲老師表情達意吧了！爲別人寫東西，這與抄筆記，照抄課文答問題無甚差異，既無推動力，又無吸引力。大多數學生在沒有動機，沒有意欲下寫作，只是交差吧了！作文對於學生來說，仍然是一件苦差悶事，所以，每一次的作文課，老師多見一張張憂愁的面孔。對於大部份同學來說，每學期多少次的作文，就是多少次痛苦的經歷。除非硬性規定，否則我們很少會見到自動提筆寫作的學生，學生討厭寫作的態度可見一斑。似乎多年來的寫作練習不單無法培養學生的寫作興趣，反而徹底破壞了他們的寫作動機。沒有動機的學習，就像「牽牛上樹」，難上加難。怎樣提高學生寫作的興趣？這是我們當前的急務。

### 作文題目千篇一律

常用的記敍文題目多與時令節日有關，例如：中秋節記趣、暑期生活等；人物素描的題目則圍繞熟悉的人，如我最尊敬的人、我最喜歡的老師、我的媽媽等；練習記事的題目則多是旅行記、運動會後記等。老師認爲這些題目與學生生

活有直接的關係，學生有親身的感受，容易掌握。殊不知因爲每位老師都有這種想法，學生在六年小學的作文練習中，年年都寫作差不多的題目。雖然理論上學生逐年成長，同一題目，可以有不同的體會，不同的表達。可是過於重複的文題，畢竟很難刺激學生思考，發掘新意。爲了要解決這個問題，進行研究的學校的校長曾要求科主任列出各級的作文題目，製成一覽表，用以避免文題過多重複的現象。在該校科務會議中，校長經常請老師思索較有趣的文題，使學生對作文產生興趣。但這些做法成效仍是有限。

### 作文評分標準差異極大

作文的評分是非常主觀的。從下文報導的研究中所見，雖然參與的中文科科主任已嘗試訂出給分的幅度，例如最高是九十分，最低是四十分，但是每位老師對評分都有自己個人的意見。有些老師認爲作文是很難達至完美的，所以很少會給學生八十分以上；可是有些老師認爲只要是文句通順，能傳情達意便可以給八十分以上。結果同樣水平的文章遇了嚴謹的老師，分數往往只得六十分左右；遇了「手鬆」的老師，分數可以高達八十分。由於平日的作文分數要計算在成績表裏，這樣便會產生不公平的現象。爲了避免不公平，同級的老師便要一起商議，訂出一個相對較爲客觀的評分標準，希望減少偏差。雖然每年都花上不少時間和精力處理這個公平給分的問題，可是卻年年成爲爭論的焦點。

### 改文費時費力，是中文老師的大包袱

認眞盡責的老師在批改中文作文時是非常費工夫的。研究者在查閱學生作文時，看見有不少老師在學生文章上作眉批、總批。實在令人感動。爲了要盡快批改好，然後派回給學生謄正，老師可能要犧牲自己休息的時間，甚至假期，可是所得到的效果可能不成比例。至於工作稍慢的老師就常有積壓作文的情況。老師不能準時派回作文卷給學生，教學的效果就會大打折扣。由於批改需時，學生作文的次數便不能隨意增加，練習寫作的機會就有所限制，學生的寫作能力難以迅速提高。

### 作文課的效果不大

翻查學生的中文作文很容易發覺學生的中文語文能力不大理想。廣東話的詞句頗多，錯字白字連篇累牘。經過六年小學階段的訓練，有些學生仍未能通順地寫出一篇文章。不少學生文字的表達能力差，不單不能作簡單的文章，有時兩節作文課過後，連一小段文字也寫不出來。爲了公平評分，老師又不可能讓學生回家完成寫作，結果便產生很多問題。

## 全語文寫作計劃

全語文教學法是以學生爲本的教學法 (Froese 1991)，曾在各地推行。英國有些地區爲了提高學生的寫作能力，推行了「國家寫作計劃」(The National Writing Project)。這個計劃的成果極佳。這個計劃的理論基礎，部份建基在全語文教學法，重點如下：

1. 教育是一種雙向活動，教師要因應不同學生，使用不同的教學方式。老師經常徵詢學生的意見，把課程或教學法修改，務求課程盡量切合實際的需要 (National Curriculum Council, 1990 [NCC])。
2. 調查發現許多英國教師不自覺地把寫作看成考核語文的工具，因而降低了學生對寫作的興趣，使他們失去抒發胸懷的機會 (NCC, 1990)。
3. 「計劃」證實學生在寫作的過程中，如果他們的意見和觀點能夠和其他人一同討論、分享，那麼，他們寫作能力和滿足感會大爲提高 (NCC, 1990)。
4. 在評估方面，老師通過一些問卷、工作紙、量表去指導學生如何去評估組員的文章。這種方式改變了老師在寫作的單一角色，部份評核工作轉由學生負責，改變了學生被動的角色 (NCC, 1989)。
5. 文章是人與人溝通的工具，有活生生、眞實的讀者，才能刺激作者寫作的慾望。「計劃」爲學生的寫作對象組成一個包括同班同學、朋友、父母、他校學生、社團成員、國

際筆友等人的讀者羣。因爲有眞正的讀者，學生才能體現自己文字的力量(NCC, 1989)。

英國「國家寫作計劃」非常成功，現正在全國各地推行。我們受了這計劃的啓發，決定在浸信會呂明才小學下午校實驗該計劃。該「校本計劃」暫命名爲「全語文寫作計劃」。我們有系統地研究該計劃的可行性。

## 研究方法

### 實驗過程

爲了深入了解「全語文寫作計劃」的理論基礎，校長、科主任和兩位研究員先閱讀有關文獻，然後多次研討，探討「校本計劃」的可行性，並設計「校本計劃」的實驗方案。

校長非常謹愼和負責任，她首先讓兒子試用該計劃的寫作方法，發覺有效和有趣，並掌握該寫作法的實際運作過程，決定落實該計劃。

校長和科主任再選一班試行，看看老師和學生的反應，結果反應良好。校長並修改了部份實驗方案。

校長安排校本培訓活動。幾位主持人向全校老師解說該計劃的設計理論，實施方法和示範一些樣本作品。老師提出很多諮詢與疑問，主持人誠意地接受老師的意見，並修改實驗方案。

實驗進行四個月，全校小一至小六都試行。實驗期間，科主任與老師緊密聯繫，設法解決困難問題。

學期完畢，校長再開全體教師會議，檢討計劃的可行性，並深入討論成敗得失。有些老師詳細報道其寶貴經驗，並展示一些學生作品。

在暑假期間，校長和科主任設計新學年的試行計劃，在多方面改進了計劃。

### 搜集資料和分析

研究員採用個案研究法，深入探討這個計劃的發展情況。搜集資料的方式包括：

(a) 綜合老師在座談會的意見和報告
(b) 總結校長和科主任的經驗
(c) 紀錄個別老師的晤談
(d) 紀錄學生的意見和感受
(e) 分析學生作品

資料分析的方法是個案綜述。着重「質」的分析。據研究員的經驗，校本課程和課堂的研究，在實踐初期最好不要因研究需要而出現太多課堂干擾，例如控制組的設立，因爲老師一般都不太抗拒教學改革，但對教學研究就較陌生，參與感不強，所以「量」的研究，可能要在後期進行（謝，1990）。

## 新教學法的特徵

### 減少寫作規限

老師只給一個大範圍的題目，同學就根據這題目按自己的興趣自設副題，然後以副題寫作，寫作內容和體裁可以自行決定。

老師簡略介紹題目後，便讓學生自由寫作，不給提綱，也不限字數。

簡單來說，這樣做就是爲了讓學生能夠解除硬性題目上的約束及詞句的規限。學生可在一個自由度極大的題目下，選擇自己的寫作材料，自由發揮。學生甚至可以在完成「大作」後，才按着內容，自行給文章冠上一個合適的文題。

### 題材多元化

全語文寫作的特點之一是題材多元化。老師給學生寫作的命題多姿多采，可以是一塊石頭、一隻青蛙、一束鮮花等等。學生可任意去描寫各自所愛。課室外下雨，老師可以讓學生隨意記敍一些在雨天中發生的事，那怕是給學生一幅圖畫、一則新聞或一段音樂，均可以引發和刺激學生去想像、去發揮。總之學生想寫甚麼就讓他們自由創作，不受文題的限制。

這項特點在於衝破傳統寫作的規範，使學生能盡量表達思想。全語文寫作還讓學生用圖畫紙代替原稿紙作文，方便他們在不懂得某字某詞或句法怎樣寫時，可以用圖畫、符號甚至英文暫時代替。這樣可以避免阻礙思路，讓他們將心中所想，盡情表達，盡量發揮。

### 重點批改

在批改作文方面，全語文寫作也突破了傳統。教師不作個別詳細的批改，而是有目標地批

改。例如老師的目標希望指導學生不用廣東話寫作，老師便只批改學生在這方面的錯誤，其他錯誤便可忍手不改。老師還可以在課堂上讓學生互相批改，彼此觀摩。因爲分數很難有一個共通的標準，所以全語文寫作不用給分，只由老師把精彩的作品選出，張貼壁報上，介紹給同學閱讀。在形式上則給予一些有趣貼紙、星星等標誌，以示獎勵。

### 老師的輔導角色

老師的角色有所不同：老師不再是作文課的「老闆」，給予指示，着令學生編寫他心目中的範文，而是擔任個別指導、協助的角色。同學在表達過程中出現問題時，老師予以援手，解決困難。這情況就如不久以前電視廣告中出現的一幕一樣：廚師正努力烹調，伸手要「豆粉」，在旁的助手就給他「豆粉」；他伸手要「豉油」，助手就給他「豉油」。學生就是那大廚師，老師身份就成了助手，協助廚師「泡製」「天下第一美食」。

### 成就動機和社羣動機

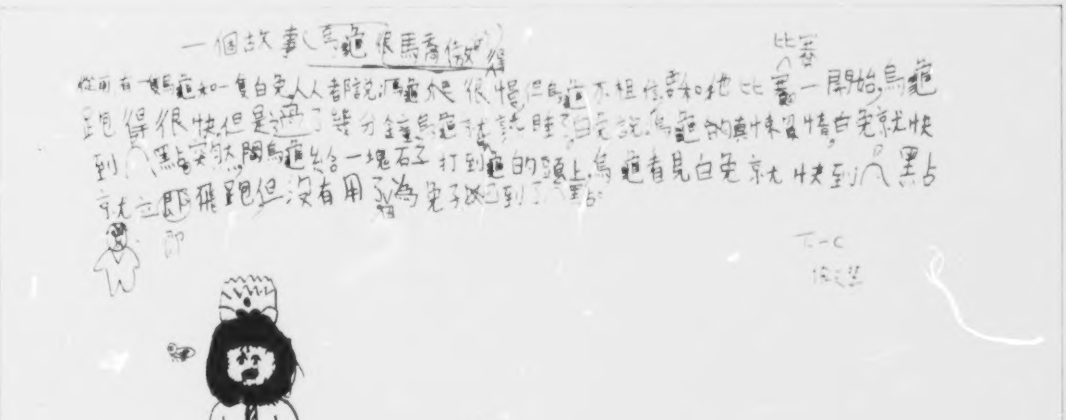
寫作對象與前不同了。學生完成作品後，老師會鼓勵同學利用作文課最後的十分鐘，交換作品，互相觀摩欣賞，彼此批改、提問、討論、回應，甚至加上評語、分數。老師會將學生的作品輪流張貼在壁報板上，讓同學欣賞評鑑。寫作對象增多了，學生要考慮的不單是老師的評改，還要重視同輩的看法。他的作品再不單是爭取好成績的工具，而是他自己的創作成果，要展示在同儕面前的藝術品。學生在成就動機(achievement motivation)及社羣動機(social motivation)的推動下，他的寫作動機自然因此增強。

## 結果與討論

### 質與量的改變

從長度方面看，按這項研究計劃寫作的文章，篇幅明顯增多了，尤以小一和小二的學生作文爲甚。以前小一的學生只能作句，小二的學生只能作段，現在他們都寫一篇篇的文章（圖一），字數大幅度提高。小一和小二的同學，少者可以寫六七十字，多者可以寫百多二百字。他們寫的文章都很有條理。例如小一有一篇題目叫「一個故事」的作文。學生寫的內容雖然都不是創作，而是聽過的東西（多數是動物故事、公主王子故事，或小朋友身上的故事），可是他們都

圖一：小一已能篇章寫作，不限於作句



一個故事（烏龜很驕傲）

從前有一隻馬龜和一隻白兔人人都說馬龜很慢很慢但烏龜不相信就和他比賽一開始，烏龜跑得很快但是過了幾分鐘烏龜就說睡了白兔說烏龜的事情，白兔就快到八點突然間烏龜給一塊石子打到龜的頭上，烏龜看見白兔就快到八點就立即飛跑但沒有用了為兔子跑到了八點

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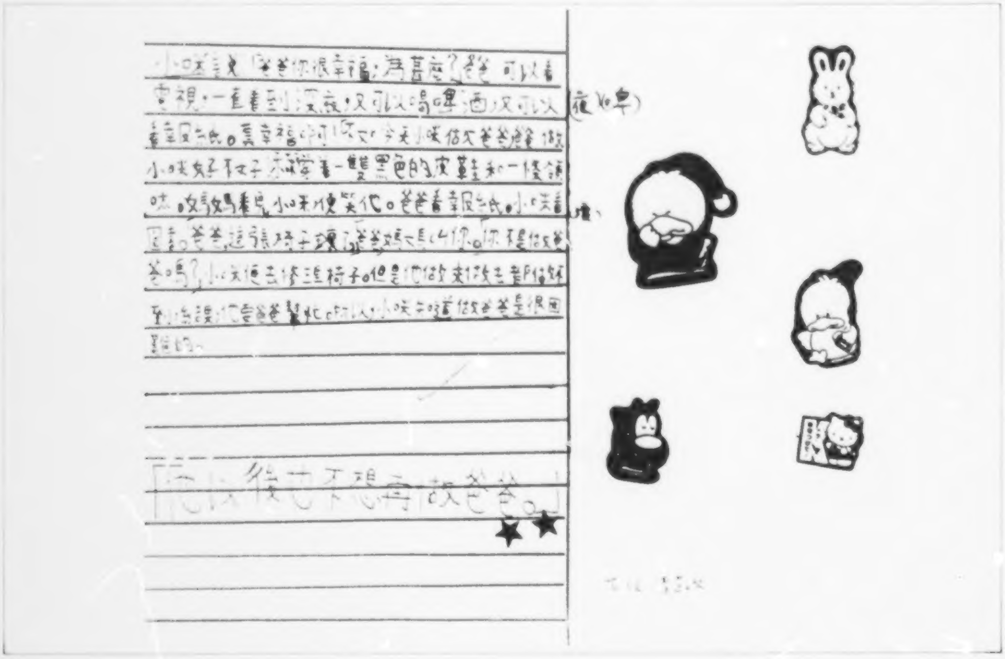
說得頭頭是道，交代清楚。時、地、人、事、原因、結果都具備。在那百多字的篇幅裏，內容是很充實（謝、賀，1993）。

### 語言能力的改變

從句子結構方面看，以前小一的作文，大部份都是寫作單句，每次作文大概是以五個詞語作句，大都是一個詞語寫一個單句，最多只是在句子前加上時間或地點的狀語，但在改變了寫作模式後，例如在敍述故事的時候，小朋友用了許多複句，有因果的（因爲……所以……）、轉折的（……但是……）、並列的（……可以……又可以……）等，有些文章甚至出現了句羣，這並不奇怪，因爲平日說話的時候，小一小二的學生根本就會用這些句子，現在全語文寫作只是讓他們有機會在文章上表達出來罷了（圖二）。

圖二：小一學生可以放胆寫文，而且能用複句。（課程只要求作句。）



小咪說「爸爸你很幸福，為甚麼？爸爸可以看電視，一直看到深夜，又可以喝啤酒，又可以看報紙。真幸福啊！」今天小咪做爸爸，爸爸做小咪的孩子。小咪穿著一雙黑色的皮鞋和一條領呔，媽媽看見小咪便笑了。爸爸看報紙，小咪看見了，爸爸這張椅子壞了，爸爸對小咪說：「你不是做爸爸嗎？」小咪便去修這椅子，但是他做來做去都做不好，讓他爸爸幫忙，所以小咪知道做爸爸是很困難的。

（夜 啤）

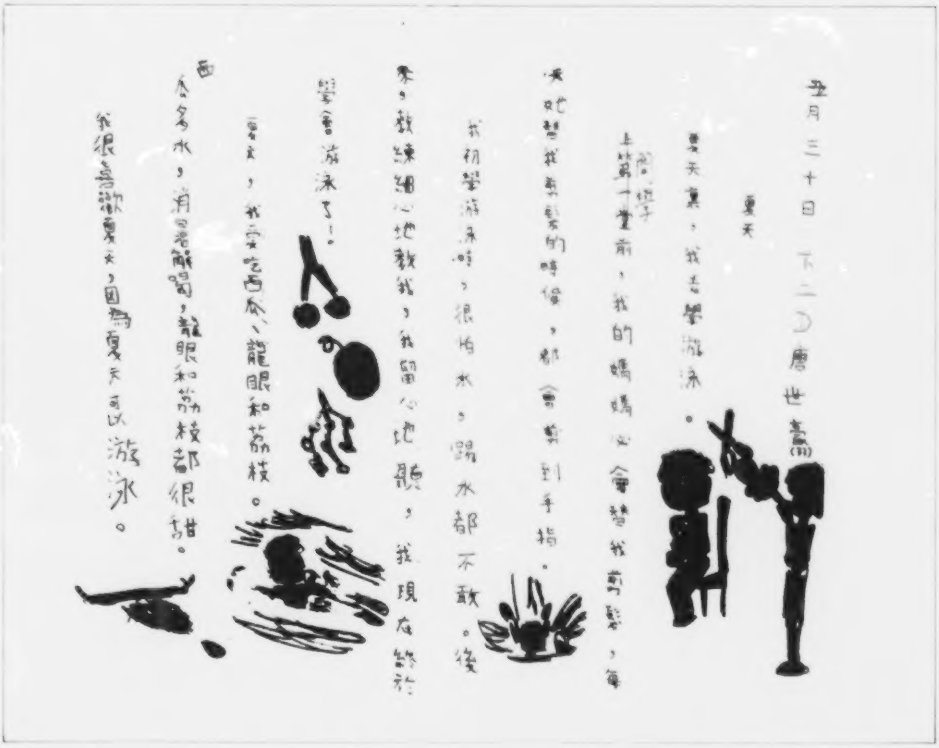
帶、

「你以後也不想再做爸爸。」

### 內容的改變

從內容方面看，用這種新的方法作文，同學可以根據老師提供的題目而自訂副題，這樣寫起來內容便豐富得多了。例如小二有一篇作文是關於夏天的（圖三），同學有些寫夏天的食物，有些寫夏天的活動，有些寫他們愛夏天的原因，有些寫學校剛在夏天安裝「冷氣機」後的感受，內容多種多樣。高年級的作文更多姿多采，例如五年級有一篇題目叫「烏龜」的作文，同學寫的內容包括聽來的烏龜故事、自創的烏龜故事、龜兔賽跑新編，烏龜是甚麼、龜殼的構造等，總之，每篇各有特色。研究員比對一些以前的作文，發現內容都是千篇一律，例如其中一次一班小一同學以「愛護」一詞作句，全班同學不是寫我們要愛護公物，便是寫我們要愛護弟妹，內容欠新意。但以這種新模式寫作，研究員看到同學其實是很有創意的。研究員訪問過幾位五年級的男女同學，他們都說喜歡這樣形式的作文。因爲他們可以根據主題而寫自己熟悉及有興趣的東西。他們覺得老師給提綱有好處也有壞處，好處便是不用想，肯定有東西寫，壞處便是只寫老師想要的東西，而不是寫自己想寫的東西。

圖三：小二學生已能寫一篇結構完整的文章。段落清楚。



五月三十日　下二D　唐世熹

夏天

夏天裏，我去學游泳。

上游泳第十堂前，我的媽媽必會替我剪髮，每次她替我剪髮的時候，都會剪到手指。

我初學游泳時，很怕水，踢水都不敢。後來，教練細心地教我，我留心地聽，我現在終於學會游泳了！

夏天，我要吃西瓜、龍眼和荔枝。西瓜多水，消暑解渴，龍眼和荔枝都很甜。

我很喜歡夏天，因為夏天可以游泳。

## 體裁的改變

從體裁方面看，由於寫作的自由度很大，所以同一題目的文章，可以是記敍文，可以是說明文（附錄圖四），也可以是議論文，甚至書信的形式也可以。例如有一篇以「石頭」爲題目的作文，同學的題目有「石頭的故事」、「有趣的石頭」、「石頭的功用」、「石頭的變化」、「我討厭石頭的原因」等，體裁和內容都富於變化。

## 表達力的提高

同學不會寫的字，可以用圖畫或符號等去表示（附錄圖五），他們感到可以暢所欲言，不會因文字的障礙做成表達的束縛，例如不會寫鑰匙、終點的「終」字、滑梯、回轉木馬、攀架等字時，同學便用圖畫表示；不會寫砍掉、擁擠，便用英文字「cut」、「big」去表示（附錄圖六）；不會寫孵化、舒服、兇惡、暈倒等概念，便用「表意」的圖畫表示。總之，文思不會因不懂寫那個字或那個意思而停頓下來。因此新教學法的作文，老師都感覺到篇幅比以前增加了，內容豐富了，文章有趣得多了。加上同學在畫紙上作文，小朋友覺得空間多了，讓他們發揮的地方闊了（附錄圖七），他們覺得作文是一項有趣的活動（謝、張，1992）。

## 全班積極參與

從評改方面看，以前的作文，讀者只有一個——老師，小朋友好像只爲老師而作文。現在由同學互評（附錄圖八），互評後由老師批閱，再把文章貼在牆上，同學可以互相觀摩。這種互評的方式雖然只能在高年級進行，但效果不錯，同學都很認真地看別人的作品，文章突然多了許多讀者，作者自會更用心地寫作。有老師說，同學追問老師甚麼時候派文，他們很想小息時看到其他同學的文章，這種熱切情況是以前罕見的。

### 學生的反應

學生改變了……！

很明顯，學生對新教學法的反應良好。看見一張張滿有盼望、埋首文中的面孔，實在令人鼓舞。學生確是喜歡用自己的語言去寫自己的經歷，自己的東西。就像有一次，老師給學生的題目是「……最愛……」，學生的選材極廣，有「最愛的人物」、「最愛的科目」、「最愛的課室」、「最愛的一雙手」等等。既是自己選擇，所以學生絕少無法下筆。加上老師的態度是積極的、鼓勵的和欣賞的，所以大多數同學會高興地創作，就像陶匠要親自造出完全屬於自己的作品一樣。

### 老師的反應

老師也改變了……！

你試過一邊批改文章，一邊捧腹大笑或會心微笑嗎？採用新教學法後，老師覺得批改內容豐富、變化多端的文章，眞是一種享受——頂級的享受。孩子的純眞、無瑕的內心世界、豐富的想像力……都在文章裏流露出來。越看他們的文章，會越愛他們，越瞭解他們，藉着批改，更可與學生深入的溝通，對於教學，有莫大的幫助。

## 待改善的問題

沒有一件事情是十全十美的，這種寫作的形式也出現一些問題，例如：

### 喧賓奪主

本來不會寫的字才可以用圖畫表示（然後再由老師塡寫那些詞語），但小孩子實在太喜歡畫畫了，有些本來會寫的字也用圖畫來表示。當在敎室觀察的時候，研究者聽見老師警告同學不可爲繪畫而寫作，而當研究者翻閱各班的作文時，發現有些作文圖畫多於文字。

### 「獨沽一味」

有些同學患了作文偏食症，無論你給他甚麼題目，他都會變成一個故事的題目，「石頭」會變成「石頭的故事」，「朋友」會變成「朋友的故事」，除非題目是難於變化的，例如「我對死刑和笞刑的看法」，那才迫使他一定要寫議論文，否則便只側重寫一種文體。

### 互評問題

低年級的同學沒有用互評的形式，高年級的同學也不大習慣這種方式，除了改一些錯字外，同學的評語不外乎是「流暢」、「通順」等泛泛之言。也許缺乏獨立的思考能力，正是香港一般學生的通病。

## 結語

計劃實施後，學生和老師對寫作有新的認識，但離開學生能揮筆即就的目標仍有漫漫長路。新計劃要吸引學生，提高寫作興趣，使他們體會到其需要性、可用性，他們才會主動的提筆。老師可用其他的課堂時間，把握時機，給予學生書寫表達的機會，讓他們多寫、不怕寫，甚至喜歡寫，這才能眞正達到寫作敎學的目的。

常常聽到有人批評香港社會「重英輕中」，以致香港學生的中文語文能力每況愈下。單是批評絕對無補於事。身爲前線的敎育工作者，我們曾反省自己是否已盡全力，在敎育下代的事工尋求突破，創造新意，使學生對學習產生興趣。從推行全語文寫作所得的經驗，我們深覺得要學生有創意，首先老師要有創意、校長有創意。整間學校的氣氛都支持新的敎學活動，成功必在望。

本研究報告的寫作目的，是希望同工給我們意見，更希望多些學校參與這校本計劃。

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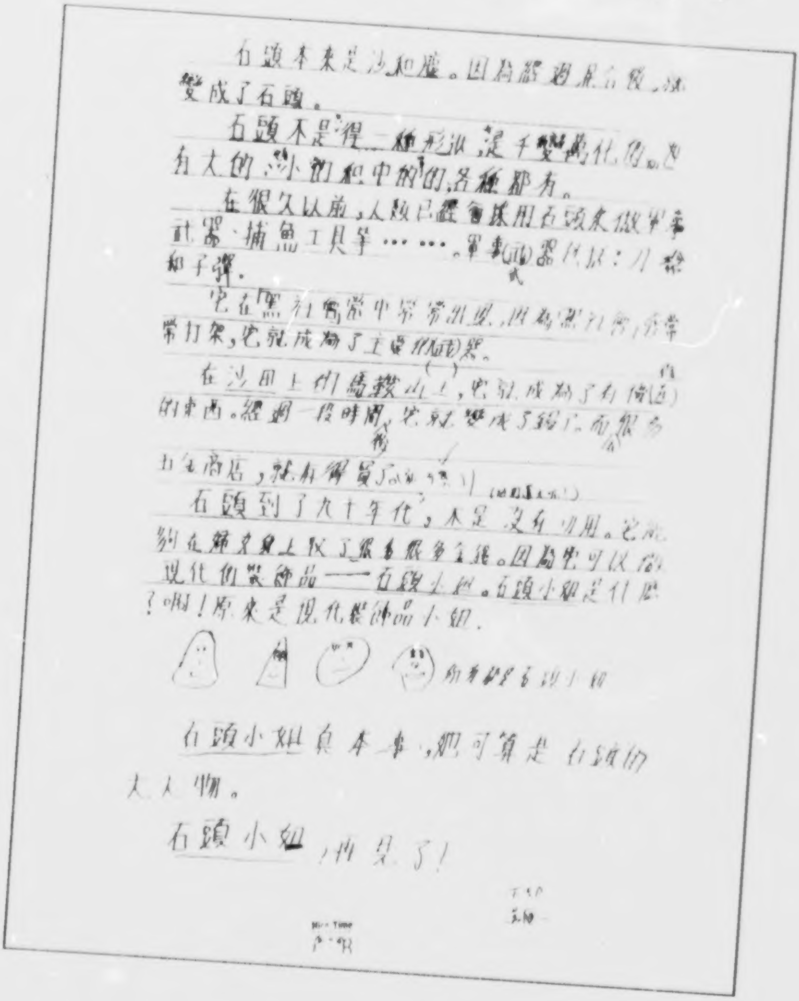
# 附錄

圖四：小學生寫的說明文

圖四 a：以「石頭」爲題的說明文，各有特色，這是其中一篇



石頭本來是沙和塵。因爲經過很多年，就變成了石頭。

石頭不是得一種形狀，是千變萬化的。也有大的、小的和中的，的各種都有。

在很久以前，人類已經會採用石頭來做狩獵武器、捕魚工具等……。軍事武器例如：刀、槍和子彈。

它在黑社會中常常出現，因爲黑社會常常打架，它就成爲了主要的武器。

在沙田上的馬鞍山上，它就成爲了有價值的東西。經過一段時間，它就變成了錦石。而很多五金商店，就有得買了[illegible]

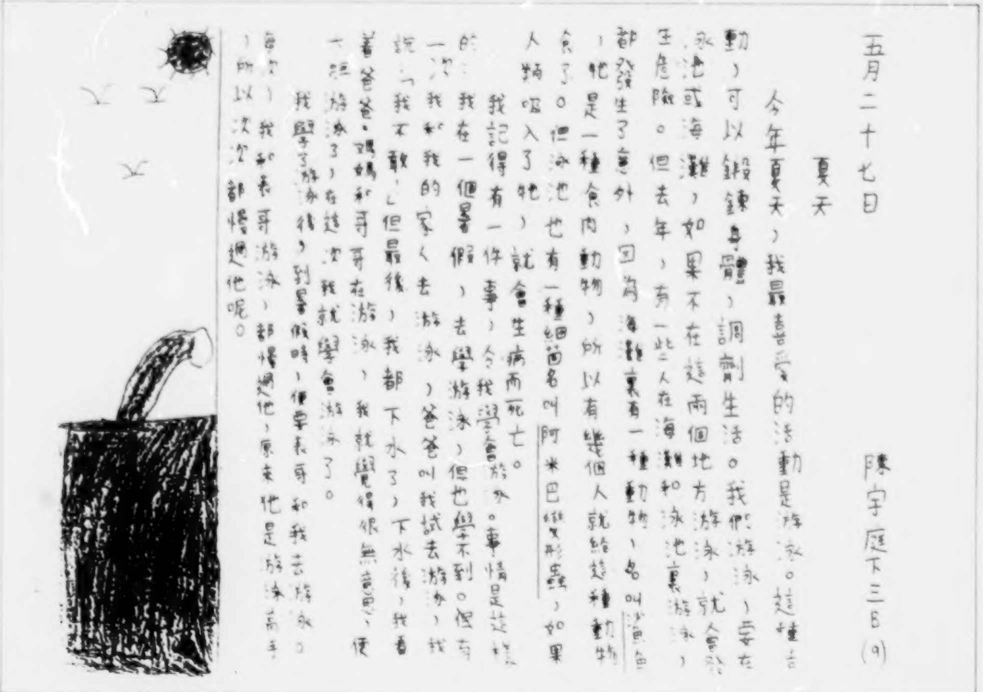
石頭到了九十年代，不是沒有用。它能夠在婦女身上收了很多很多金錢。因爲它可以當現代的裝飾品——石頭小姐。石頭小姐是什麼？啊！原來是現代裝飾品小姐。

所有都是石頭小姐

石頭小姐真本事，她可算是石頭的大人物。

石頭小姐，再見了！

圖四b：小三已能寫說明文。（《課程綱要》是五年班學說明文）



五月二十七日　陳宇庭 下三B (9)

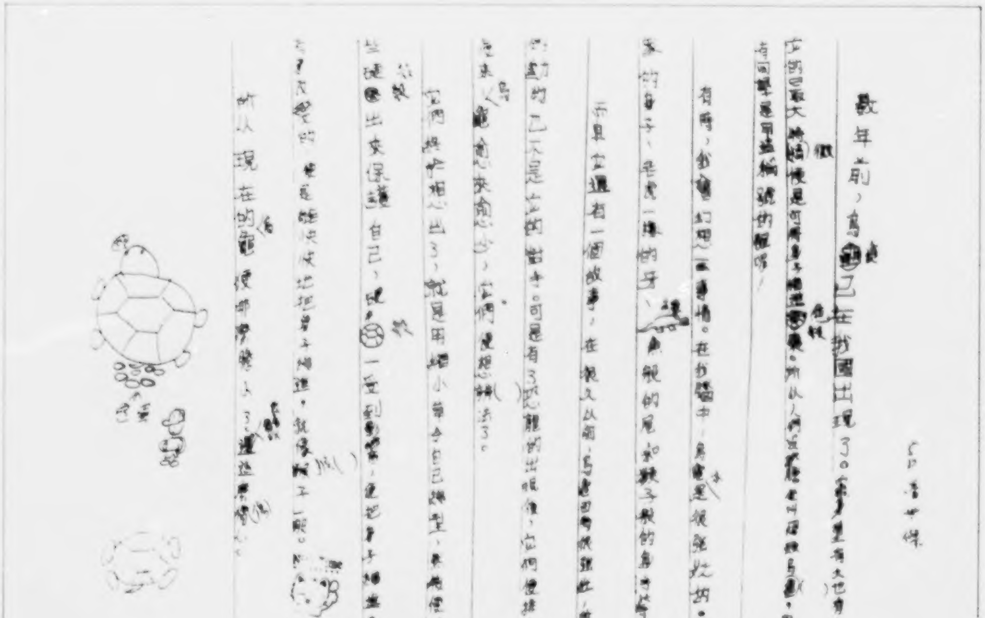
夏天

今年夏天，我最喜愛的活動是游泳。這種活動，可以鍛鍊身體，調劑生活。我們游泳，要在泳池或海灘，如果不在這兩個地方游泳，就會發生危險。但去年，有一些人在海灘和泳池裏游泳，都發生了意外，因為海灘裏有一種動物，名叫鯊魚，牠是一種食肉動物，所以有幾個人就給這種動物食了。但泳池也有一種細菌名叫阿米巴變形蟲，如果人類吸入了牠，就會生病而死亡。

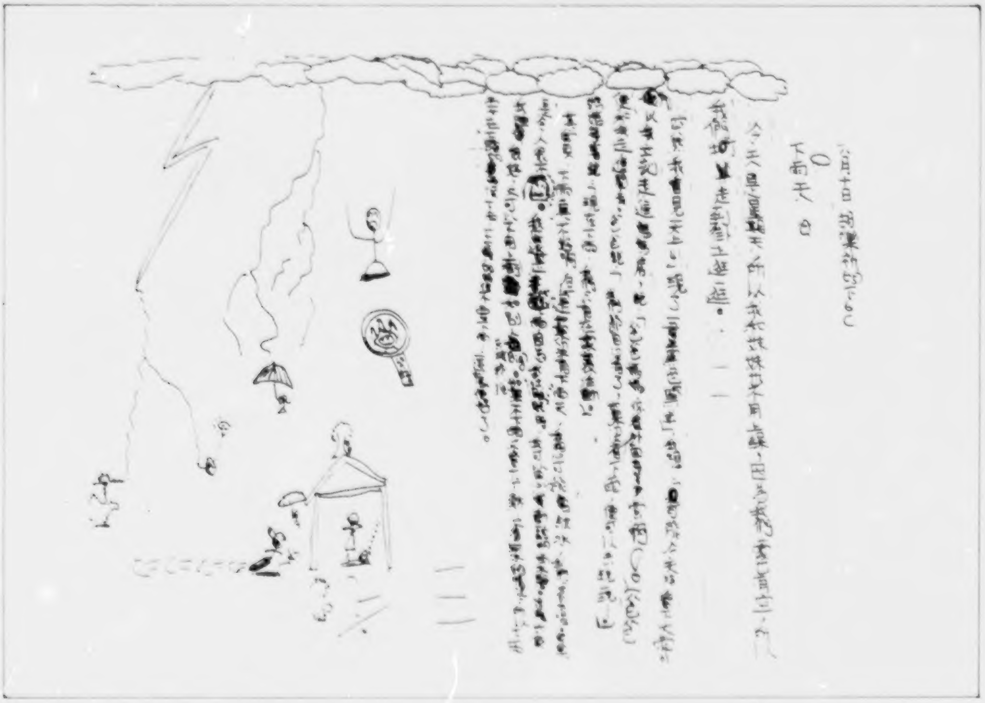
我記得有一件事，令我學會游泳。事情是這樣的：我在一個暑假，去學游泳，但也學不到。但有一次，我和我的家人去游泳，爸爸叫我試去游泳，我說：「我不敢。」但最後，我都下水了，下水後，我看着爸爸、媽媽和哥哥在游泳，我就覺得很無意思，便一起游泳了，在這次我就學會游泳了。

我學了游泳後，到暑假時，便帶表哥和我去游泳。每次，我和表哥游泳，都慢過他，原來他是游泳高手，所以次次都慢過他呢。

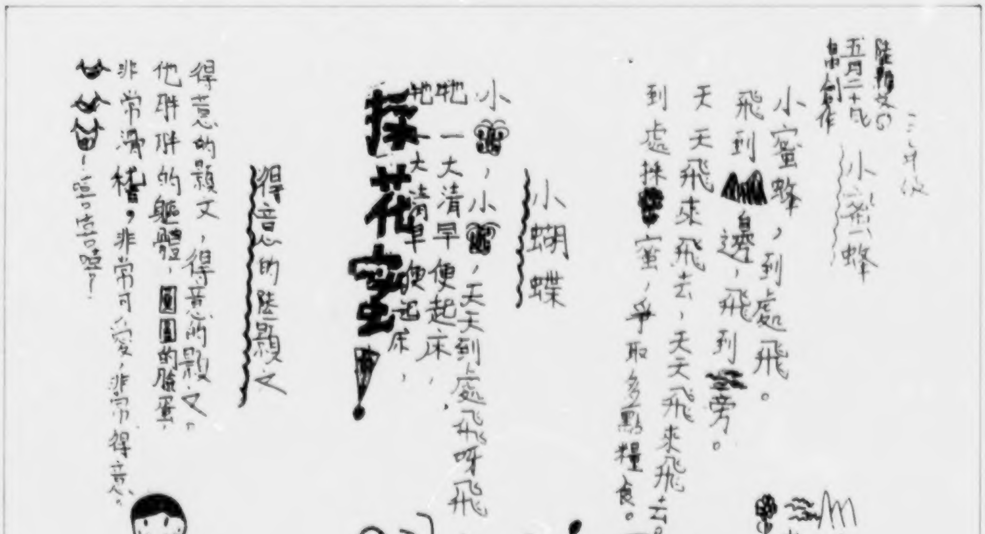
圖五：學生可以利用多種符號創作。老師把符號變成文字。



圖六：學生利用圖畫，甚至英文幫助表達，這些符號就是學生需要老師輔助的難點所在。



圖七：小三學生不獨能寫文章，也能寫詩，他們可以盡情發揮。



三年級

小蜜蜂

陸穎文的
五月二十八日
自創作

小蜜蜂，到處飛。
飛到邊，飛到旁。
天天飛來飛去，天天飛來飛去。
到處採蜜，爭取多點糧食。

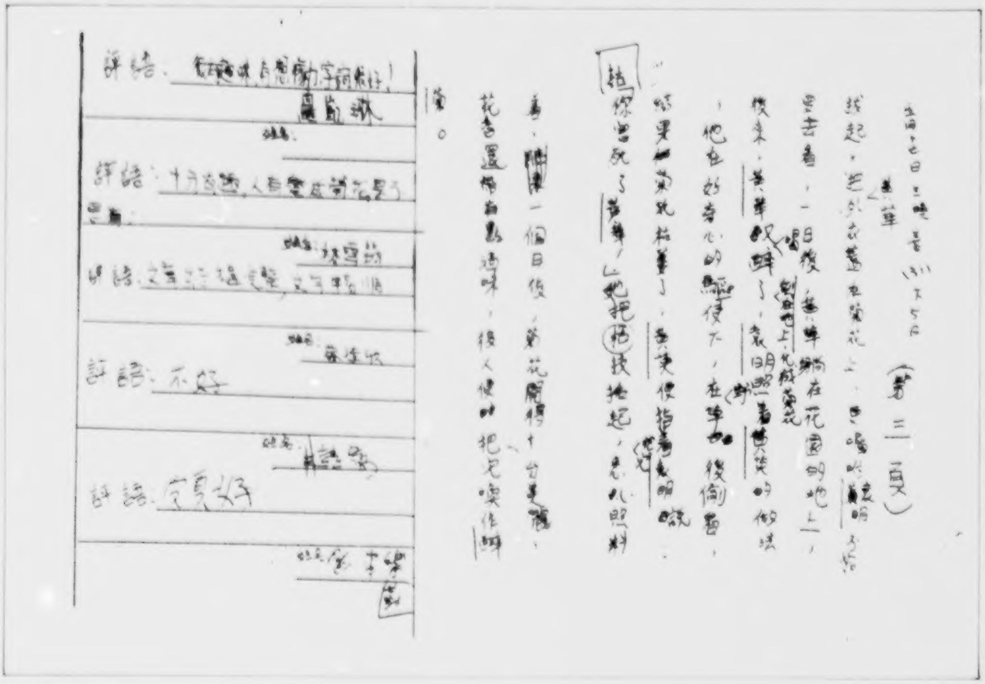
小蝴蝶

小，小，天天到處飛呀飛。
牠一大清早便起床，
牠大清早便起床，
採花蜜！

得意的陸穎文

得意的穎文，得意的穎文。
他胖胖的軀體，圓圓的臉蛋，
非常滑稽，非常可愛，非常得意。
嘻嘻嘻！

圖八：同學們互相批評，互相閱讀對方文章。文章不再只是爲老師而作。



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關之英，香港教育學院講師
薛鳳鳴，浸信會呂明才小學下午校中文科主任

New Horizons No. 35, 1994

# Which Pictures Produce the Best Student Writing?

**Tony M.K. Lau**
**Ning Po Secondary School**

This paper reports on an action research project which aimed at studying the effect of different types of pictorial stimuli upon students' performance in picture description writing tasks. The ultimate goal of the project was to identify the type of picture that can motivate senior secondary students to write in a coherent, analytical and creative manner. The results show that concrete pictures are useful in generating descriptive writing, and abstract pictures, particularly those with an exaggerative element, are effective in stimulating creativity in thinking and writing. Evidence suggests that there is a close link between the appeal of a picture and the quality of the writing it produces. In the research, the two pictures which interested the students most were also those which produced the best written work.

## 哪種圖畫產生最佳學生寫作？

本論文是一個「行動研究」的報告。研究目的在於探討提供不同種類視覺刺激的不同類型圖畫對學生在「看圖寫作」所產生的影響；而研究的最終目標是發掘能推動學生寫出結構嚴謹、具分析性而又富創意的理想圖畫。研究結果顯示寫實圖畫有利於產生描述寫作，而抽象圖畫，特別是帶有誇張成份的圖畫，則有利於引發創意寫作。在研究中，學生寫得最好的作品都是寫及他們最感興趣的兩幅圖畫。由此可見，圖畫的吸引力和作品的質素是有密切關係的。

## Introduction

"Learning English can be a drag if I don't have the chance to use it; learning grammar is basically boring since I have to memorize a lot of grammatical rules. Among the different English classes I like the oral lesson most". This comment from my students, which I had heard many times, revealed a strong preference for learning English through using it, which explained why they liked the oral lesson. I had also found that the use of pictures was another key source of appeal. This realization prompted me to carry out an action research project aiming at making the most of pictures to make my students enjoy learning English. This project was conducted in 1993 and the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination (HKCEE) English Language oral syllabus back then, unlike the new syllabus effective now, required students to describe pictures). My specific goal was to design thought-provoking pictures for students to discuss, to analyze and to write on while testing the effectiveness of different types of pictorial stimuli.

My commitment to the action research project was also motivated by a fundamental concern about the English teaching-learning environment in Hong Kong. First, the present English curriculum, especially the teaching schedules for fifth-formers, plays down quality but plays up quantity. Second, many English classes are teacher-centred and there is the lack of a two-way and effective communication among teachers and students. Third, the learning habit of students is very passive and students find it very difficult to think independently. My experience of marking the HKCEE Syllabus B compositions has made me realize that local students do have great problems in generating ideas in writing. Also, serving as a HKCEE Syllabus A oral examiner has made me understand that most local students lack original ideas when it comes to describing pictures.

The fact that a lot of local students cannot exercise their critical and creative thinking in both writing and picture description has something to do with the prevalent "instant culture", which does not encourage people to use their brains. There is, however, no reason that this cannot be changed. If students can be motivated to use their brains in English classes, they will be able to develop their critical and creative thinking and they will like English. Thus the design and use of thought-provoking materials formed part of the rationale for the action research project.

Another crucial decision that I made was that the pictures had to be eye-catching and capable of creating a great visual impact. Visual input with such qualities would be necessary to bring about positive output — original and creative ideas in students' oral and written work. Such input would appeal to our students, who are constantly bombarded by a variety of visual influences through television, movies, comic books, colourful TV games both at home and at TV game centres, and portable "game boys". The ever-increasing popularity of comic books as well as TV games puts in plain sight that students enjoy interacting with visual stimuli.

Despite the fact that this action research focused on how different types of pictorial stimuli would affect students' performance in picture description writing tasks, the project was also an attempt to help the students of a Secondary 4 class develop their English holistically. To achieve this, it was ensured that all elements of English learning and teaching — thinking, talking, listening, writing and reading, would be included in every single lesson with no segregation.

## Methodology

As already mentioned, the project was by nature a piece of action research. Simply put, action research is a way of improving education by changing practices and learning from the consequences of changes (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988). In the context of teaching, action research refers to teacher-initiated and teacher-conducted classroom research through which the teacher-researchers attempt to improve their understanding of classroom teaching and learning while generating improvements in teaching practices. Action research usually consists of small-scale projects in the teacher's own classroom. It was with this orientation in mind that I committed myself to the research.

The project went through small cycles of planning, acting, observing and reflecting, which is typical of action research (Kemmis and McTaggart, 1988). The whole research process was documented: all evidence, students' feedback and my own reflections were systematically recorded in the researcher's journal and the action notebook, and in files categorized as the Phase File, the Picture File and the Questionnaire File. Questionnaires were used to collect students' feedback on all the picures used. They were completed either during or after the lessons. In addition to the written records, the last two lessons were recorded also on videotape.

## Project Design and Strategies

### *The picture description writing classes*

During the 3-month research period, 8 double lessons, each lasting 80 minutes, were allocated to picture description writing tasks. Adopting a holistic appraoch, every such class included all elements of English learning and teaching to ensure that the students would use their thinking skills as well as all their language skills. The general procedure went like this:

1. The students were paired and given a picture to look at. The whole class were given the same picture. The paired students were allowed five minutes to have a discussion with each other on how to describe the picture. This was designed to engage the students in thinking, listening and talking in English.
2. The students worked on their own. They were given some questions and specific writing tasks to help them sharpen their focus when writing. Usually they were given ten minutes to produce a written description. Then they read each other's work. In this way, reading was built into the series of activities.
3. I put some questions to the whole class after the students had finished their writing. The students were encouraged to answer spontaneously from their seats. A relaxing atmosphere was maintained while this was done so as to boost the students' confidence in oral production.
4. Some students were invited to read aloud their written descriptions of the picture. Since there were different outcomes based on the same visual input, this served to stimulate further thinking and talking about the picture while providing practice in listening.

In some lessons, several pictures were used consecutively. Other activities such as categorizing pictures, describing mimed actions and reporting problems encountered in describing pictures were sometimes included, depending on the aim of the lesson.

### *Selection and preparation of visual stimuli*

All the pictures used in the research were collected from authentic sources which included newspapers, magazines, fashion brochures, books and comic books. This was based on the belief that real-life visual stimuli would be much more stimulating in the eyes of the students than contrived materials, such as the pictures used in the HKCEE Oral Examination. In English language teaching, the use of authentic text materials has been advocated along with the communicative approach. Nowadays, even language tests include extracts from authentic sources. For example, the Hong Kong Advanced Level Examination (HKALE) Use of English papers have used texts from the Time magazine and Asiaweek. Thus, the use of authentic visual materials for the action research was in line with the general trend.

The HKCEE Oral Examination pictures were not used because they were not authentic materials, although they were related to real-life examples. Moreover, they could not greatly arouse students' interest in learning English because of their examination association. In the project, the use of pictures was aimed at helping students build up their self-confidence in expressing their original and creative ideas. The absence of the examination "feel" in authentic pictures would be a clear advantage.

The pictures used in the project were of different kinds in terms of form and content. For example, there were concrete and abstract pictures. There were also photographs and caricatures. Four of the pictures were collages, i.e., pictures "made by sticking various materials or objects on to a surface" (Summers et al., 1992, p.242). Thus it was possible to include "exaggerative" elements in them. Samples of the pictures used are included in Appendix 1.

### *Motivating students to learn*

According to theories in the psychology of learning (as summarized in Leben [ 理 ], 1981, p.5), children's motivation to learn mainly comes from their "needs", which generate "drive" – the driving force motivating children to learn. There are two kinds of "need". The "internal need", which is generated by children themselves, activates their "internal drive", which in turn triggers their "internal motivation", motivating them to do particular things, including learning. On the other hand, the "external need", such as parental praise or friends' urge, can lead to the emergence of "external drive", which gives rise to "external motivation", which may also result in learning.

The design of the project was guided by these theories. It was observed that the students had a need for visual gratification. Because the thought-provoking pictorial stimuli would satisfy this need, they would activate the students' internal drive to complete the tasks, which would lead to learning. The task design was also based on the recognition that the students had a need for fun. It was considered vital that the lessons were conducted in a relaxing and enjoyable atmosphere. Therefore, "fun" features were included as exaggerative elements in some of the pictures. In the lessons, the picture description task was like a game with group participation. The "game" element was intended to arouse students' interest which was expected to be further escalated to a new apogee by the use of a student-centred approach in which the students were the "prime movers".

## Implementation

A systematic approach was adopted in identifying the pictures that were most effective in generating creativity in writing. The project was implemented in five phases. Different elements were systematically introduced to the pictorial stimuli. The new elements were incorporated into the pictures based on systematic observation of students' responses and written output. This was where the project went through the small cycles of planning, acting, observing and reflecting. Project planning and implementation was essentially a continuous process guided by new observations. For a graphical presentation of the five phases, refer to the Action Research Flowchart in Figure 1.

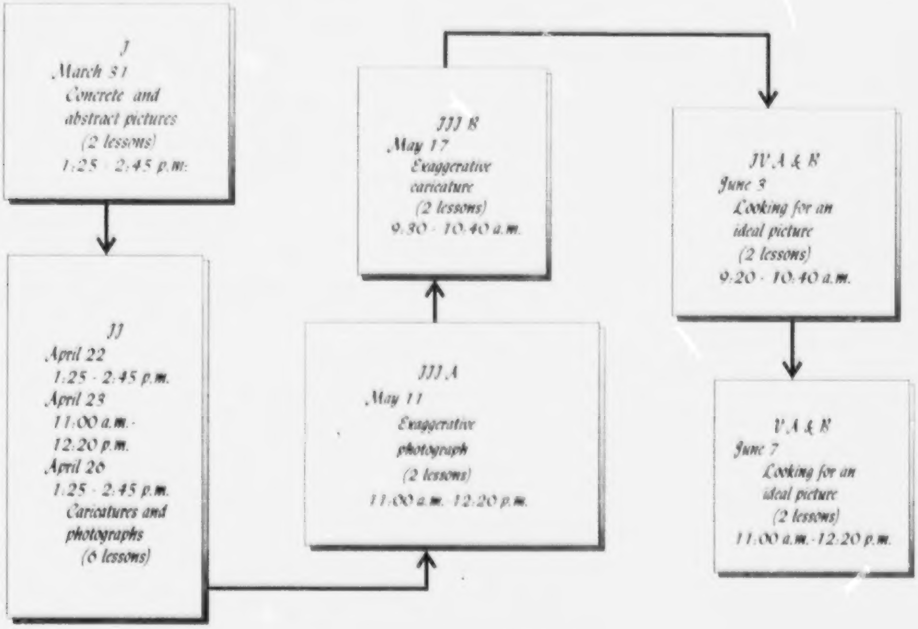
I
March 31
Concrete and
abstract pictures
(2 lessons)
1:25 - 2:45 p.m.
II
April 22
1:25 - 2:45 p.m.
April 23
11:00 a.m.-
12:20 p.m.
April 26
1:25 - 2:45 p.m.
Caricatures and
photographs
(6 lessons)
III A
May 11
Exaggerative
photograph
(2 lessons)
11:00 a.m.-12:20 p.m.
III B
May 17
Exaggerative
caricature
(2 lessons)
9:30 - 10:40 a.m.
IV A & B
June 3
Looking for an
ideal picture
(2 lessons)
9:20 - 10:40 a.m.
V A & B
June 7
Looking for an
ideal picture
(2 lessons)
11:00 a.m.-12:20 p.m.

Figure 1: Action research flowchart

The students were given three concrete and four abstract pictures to discuss and describe in the first phase. It was found that they liked to describe abstract pictures although they were only able to handle the task of describing concrete pictures.

In the second phase, I intentionally provided the students with ten caricatures and photographs of different genres in order to identify the visual element that interested them most. It was found that they liked caricatures and photographs having an exaggerative touch.

In the third phase, I let my students sink into the realm of an exaggerative photograph and an exaggerative caricature, one at a time, in order to closely monitor their interaction with the exaggerative stimuli. Their responses were, on the whole, positive.

With the aim of finding the ideal picture(s) that could stimulate creativity in the students' writing, I incorporated elements of exaggerative photographs and exaggerative caricatures in four collages, which were used in both the fourth and the fifth phases of the project.

## Results and Discussion

### *Phase I*

Date: March 31, 1993
Visual stimuli: 3 concrete (IA - IC) and
4 abstract pictures (ID - IG)

Results

Although most students claimed that they found the abstract pictures easier and more interesting to describe, a closer look at the language they used puts in plain sight that they lacked the ability to write about abstract pictures. They were only able to handle the task of describing concrete pictures. All but one abstract picture (Picture IG) posed problems to them. Nevertheless, their performance in abstract picture description shows a high level of creativity.

Discussion

The students showed a preference for abstract pictures, which was an unexpected result. A sudden increase in fluency in writing was recorded as a result, but there was a decrease in accuracy in the use of English at the same time. It can be argued that in fact all pictures have their value in generating written output, but concrete pictures are more useful in fostering students' descriptive power in writing while abstract pictures are more useful in stimulating creativity in writing.

In the initial phase of the project, the concepts of abstract and concrete pictures were clarified for the class two days before the start of the action research. In retrospect, more warm-up work would have made the launch smoother.

### *Phase II*

Dates: April 22, April 23 and April 26, 1993
Visual stimuli: 4 photographs (IIA - IID) and
6 caricatures (IIE - IIJ)

Results

Among the photographs, the students found IID the most interesting. IID is an exaggerative photograph featuring an ultra-modern girl holding an oversized gun. 32 out of the 44 students in the class reported in the questionnaire that they enjoyed describing this exaggerative photograph.

Among the caricatures, the students found IIG the most interesting. IIG is about a Hercules-like muscular man holding a weight in his hand. Again, most students showed that they favoured a caricature which had an exaggerative touch.

Discussion

The students enjoyed describing visual stimuli of an exaggerative nature. It is high time we explored how students' preference for exaggerative visual stimuli could be utilized to make their writing more creative and coherent.

### *Phase III*

Dates: May 11 and May 17, 1993
Visual stimuli: 1 exaggerative photograph (IIIA) and
1 exaggerative caricature (IIIB)

Results

From Phase III onwards, the students' output was assessed in terms of accuracy in language and creativity. In the assessment, "performing well" referred to obtaining good grades, i.e. Grades A - C. The lowest grade was Grade F. The progress in the students' performance in terms of accuracy and creativity is shown in Figures 2 - 3.

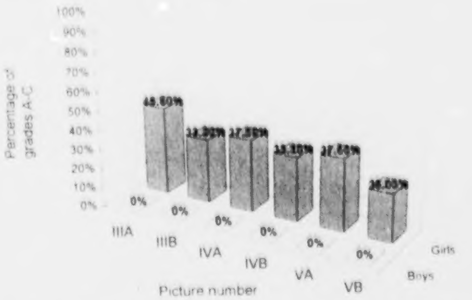

Figure 2: Students' performance in terms of accuracy

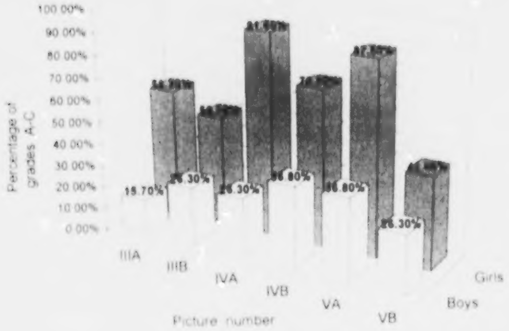

Figure 3. Students' performance in terms of creativity

*Accuracy*

The girls did better than the boys in terms of accuracy in both IIIA and IIIB. The girls' accuracy was higher in IIIA than IIIB. In IIIA, 45.8% of girls performed well while in IIIB, 33.3% of them performed well. The boys' performance in IIIA was not impressive; most of the boys obtained Grade E, but they did better in accuracy in IIIB. None of the boys obtained Grade C or above in IIIA or IIIB.

*Creativity*

We can see that the girls outdid the boys again in creativity in both IIIA and IIIB by a wide margin. In IIIA, 58.3% of girls obtained Grades A - C. In IIIB, 50% of girls did so. The boys made some progress. Their performance in IIIB was better than that in IIIA. In IIIA, 15.7% of boys obtained Grades A - C. In IIIB, 26.3% of boys obtained similar grades.

Discussion

The girls' outstanding performance may be related to their early language development and the fact that in general girls pay more attention to details. However, although boys tend to be less careful than girls, they have potential and have more experience from reading comic books. This may be an explanation for why the boys progressed by 10.6% when describing IIIB, the caricature.

### Phase IV

Date: June 3, 1993
Visual stimuli: "Big baby on a car" (IVA) and
"Eye-opening news" (IVB)

Results

*Accuracy*

The girls still outperformed the boys in both description tasks. They performed better in describing "big baby on a car" (IVA) with 37.5% of girls obtaining Grades A - C than in describing "eye-opening news" (IVB), in which 33.3% of girls achieved similar grades. However, none of the boys performed well in IVA or IVB. Most of them were awarded Grade E in IVA and Grades E - F in IVB. On the whole, the boys did slightly better in IVA.

*Creativity*

The performance of both the boys and the girls was greatly improved in this phase. In IIIA, 15.7% of boys performed well. In IVA, 26.3% of boys performed well and in IVB, 36.8% of boys achieved grades A-C.

By and large, the girls' performance was excellent. In IVA, 91.6% of girls obtained Grades A - C while 70.8% performed equally well in IVB in the creativity assessment.

Discussion

Compared with IIIA, which is straightforward, IVA and IVB can motivate students to think of a story in many dimensions. The girls' superb performance in creativity in IVA may be due to the appeal of the cute baby. This may be related to girls' general liking for cute things.

In terms of accuracy, the girls' performance in IVA and IVB was not as good as their performance in IIIA. This is probably due to the complexity of the picture, since IVA and IVB are complex, multi-element pictures while IIIA is a single element picture. Despite improvement in the performance of the boys, their work remained inferior to the girls'. This is probably due to their weak foundation in English, their reluctance to pay attention to details and their lack of patience.

### Phase V

Date: June 7, 1993
Visual Stimuli: "The baby boxer" (VA) and
"Leon and the baseball" (VB)

Results

*Accuracy*

The girls outperformed the boys again in terms of accuracy in describing both "the baby boxer" (VA) and "Leon and the baseball" (VB). In VA and VB, 37.5% and 25% of girls received Grades A - C respectively.

None of the boys performed well in VA or VB. Between the two tasks, the boys performed better in VA.

#### *Creativity*

The creativity of the boys was more or less the same in IIIB, IVA,VA and VB. In VA, 36.8% performed well and in VB, 26.3% of them did well. On the other hand, 87.5% and 41.6% of girls obtained the three top grades in VA and VB respectively. Some boys and girls were awarded Grade F in both accuracy and creativity in this phase.

### Discussion

In VB, the percentages of both boys and girls who performed well dropped slightly because of the nature of the stimuli. Through practice in IIIA, IIIB, IVA and IVB, the students had developed their ability to manipulate associative thinking. As expected, they had little difficulty with VA which stimulated them to think of a concrete plot. But VB is more complicated and the inter-relationships among the visual elements are indirect. Judging from the students' performance, this collage is probably more suitable for creative students. By using IVA, IVB, VA and VB, I was able to distinguish between students who were good at accuracy and creativity and a minority of students who were very weak at the basics.

### *Highlights of the findings*

The combination of exaggerative pictures, caricatures and photographs in a cute way proved to help students write good descriptions. "Big baby on a car" (IVA) enabled 91.6% of girls to write descriptions with creativity. Another winner "the boxer baby" (VA) inspired 87.5% of girls to write good and creative essays. As I have expected, the pictures which interested the students most also prompted the best written work.

The most encouraging was that the sudden boost in fluency prompted by IVA and VA did not lead to a decrease in accuracy. Based on the findings, I can conclude that stimulating pictures which were cute in the eyes of my students helped to improve, to different extents, both accuracy and creativity in the students' writing.

## Limitations of the Research

There were a number of constraints that undermined the progress of my action research. They are as follows.

### *Uncontrollable variables*

The target class was a mixed-ability class with students of a wide range of backgrounds and abilities in terms of English, which made it difficult for me to maintain a good quality control of all undertakings in the action research project. There were also new comers to the class.

As the research results show, the differences between the sexes are significant. However, there were more girls than boys in the class. The disproportion, to a certain extent, undermined the validity of the gender-based comparison.

### *Time constraint*

The collection of and search for appropriate resources and materials was a Herculean task, which required a large amount of preparation time. The collection of materials for the four collages and their design alone took over two weeks. Three months hardly allowed enough time for the series of work that had to be done for the project.

### *Heavy teaching workload*

Working on the action research project has been an eye-opening experience for me, but I have to admit that the heavy workload and the tight teaching schedule made the implementation of my action research project become a Gordian knot at times.

### *Lack of user-friendly facilities*

Visual aid support in the school was not adequate. Screens, slide projectors, overhead projectors and television sets, which were essential to my project, were not easily available at my school.

## Suggestions for Further Research

If this project continues, it is my strong belief that it should include listening elements. Like many secondary students in Hong Kong, my students are audiophiles who enjoy listening to music. Their over-enthusiastic debate about who would be the first pop king to make 10 billion dollars in China is a case in point.

The students' interest can be further aroused by the inclusion of exaggerative visual stimuli in motion. Visual images, such as the dragon ball characters on television and other characters in TV games, with which students are familiar, are not stationary. With this in mind, I think my students can be asked to write a description after seeing an advertisement such as a Seven Up Fido Dido advertisement, which is exaggerative in nature. The students can also be asked to do some writing when and after watching a movie. Writing about a blockbuster movie like "Who framed Roger Rabbit" can make them love writing more, since this creative movie comprises exaggerative real objects and real people as well as exaggerative cartoon characters.

Pictures which can greatly arouse boys' interest in writing are yet to be found. In the research, it was found that boys performed better when describing caricatures and this phenomenon is directly related to the fact that most boys in the class are comic book fans. The effectiveness of pictures having a lot of exaggerative caricature elements that can stimulate boys' interest should be further explored.

## Conclusion

### *Effective visual stimuli as resources*

Despite the limitations, the action research achieved the goal that it set out to achieve. Collages with exaggerative stimuli were identified as effective pictures for stimulating creative writing. My task of identifying the ideal picture type was accomplished. However, my quest for an ideal picture is far from over since there will never be an ideal picture. I will need to update my resources on a regular basis, as all English teachers must do, and make the most of the available resources in designing organic and enjoyable lessons for my students.

### *Organic and enjoyable English lessons*

The research project also achieved two other goals. First, the picture description writing classes, which comprised the holistic use of thinking, speaking, listening, writing and reading skills, were carried out as planned in an organic manner. Second, the student-centred lessons with stimulating tasks proved to be enjoyable experiences for the students. The attempt to use infotainment in the English classroom was a successful one.

### *Creativity and accuracy*

A lot of students do not like English because our curriculum plays up the importance of accuracy. Most English lessons in Hong Kong do not aim at encouraging students to use their brains. Departing from the general practice, my project aimed at encouraging students to exercise critical and creative thinking through describing thought-provoking pictures in a relaxing, game-like atmosphere. The project found that the boys were not very good at accuracy, but about 30% of boys had potential in creativity.

No doubt, the accuracy of the boys need to be strengthened. The project nonetheless saw very positive developments in them. At the start of the project, the boys could only write a few lines. Towards the end, they could write many more sentences and could come up with many ideas. From their faces I could see that they were enjoying writing in English. In a sense, my action research project was a triumph because it enhanced the creativity of my students and cultivated an interest in English in them, especially the boys. With these in mind, I would like to argue that teaching creativity is more important than teaching accuracy. If you can make your students become interested in learning English by developing their creativity in your lessons, then you can start teaching accuracy in grammar without them finding it boring since they have fallen in love with English.

If students really love English very much as a result of your creativity-oriented teaching, then your attempts to teach them accuracy will be a very easy task. Taken together, teaching creativity is more important than teaching accuracy for learners of English, especially those weak at their ABCs.

### *The English curriculum and students*

In this action research project, the distance between my students and me was shortened as a result of the relaxing learning atmosphere. The teaching approach "erased" the fear of the students since all the materials collected from real-life sources were student-friendly and did not remind them of any examinations. I think the HKCEE English syllabus has been intimidating for students, thus stifling their interest in learning English. It is high time that we tried to put our heads together to hammer out a new English curriculum that is both teacher-friendly and student-friendly, and to carry out more "actions". After all, actions speak louder than words!

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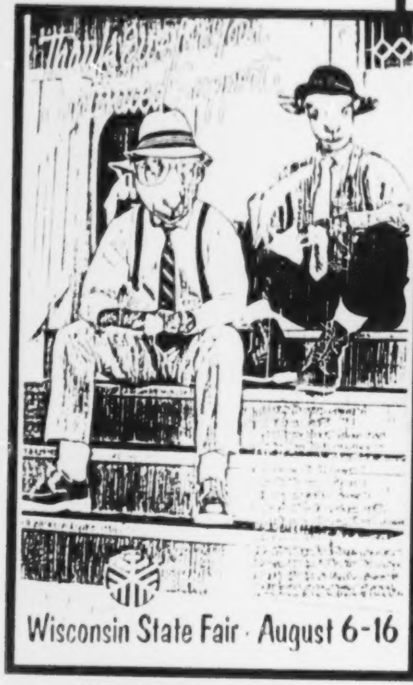
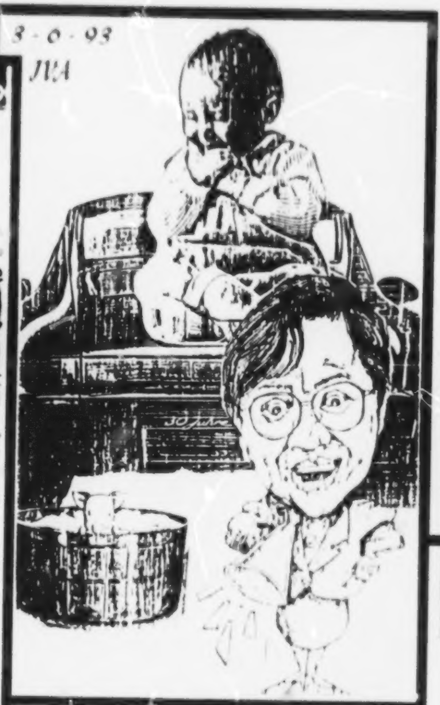
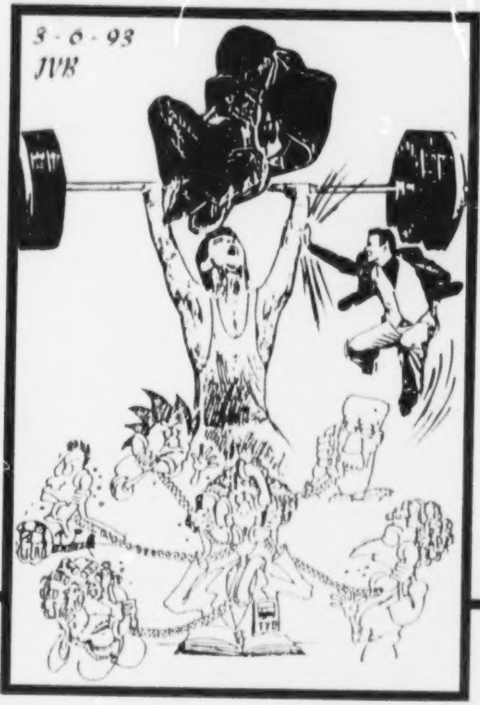
**Author**

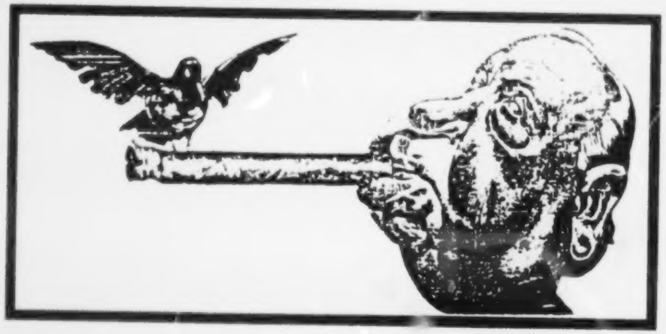
Tony M.K. LAU: Language teacher, Ning Po Secondary School

## Appendix 1









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(6)

P. 2

ACTION RESEARCH

1. Use AT LEAST 100 words to describe this picture; you have 10 minutes to work on this task.

A woman, Mary is a operater in TVB, she should collect a lit of news from many people. She is very busy to receive the calls and arrange the ~~news~~ notes. She feels nenous and uphappy. In her mind, she wants to be a strong man who can overcome any difficulties, no one can stop he ~~or she~~ to do anything. She wanted to solve all the problems carefreely and can have a great breakthrough.

very good!

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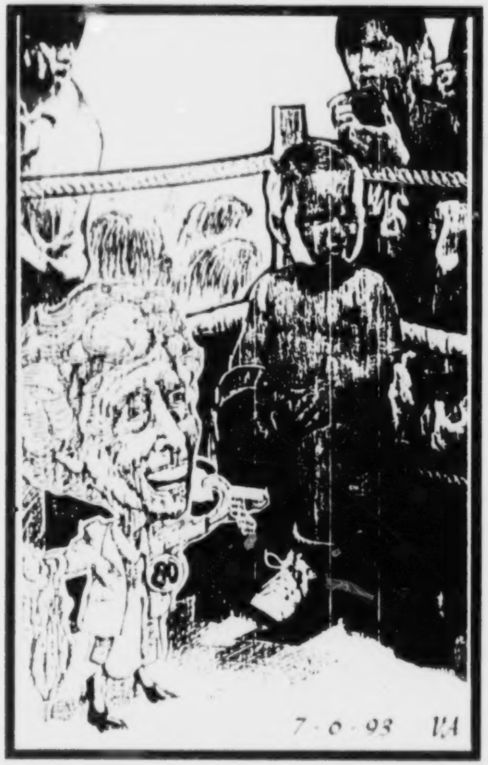
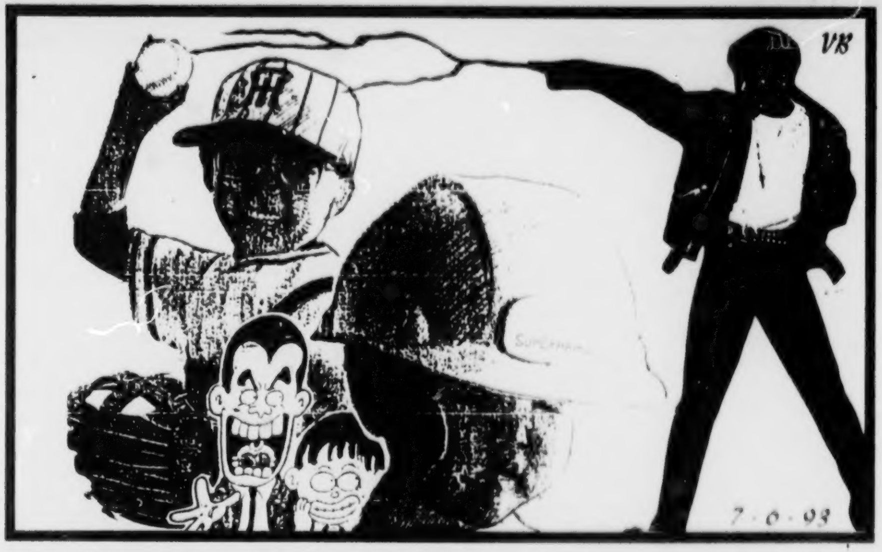
**Appendix 1 (continued)**





There ~~was~~ is a baby ~~fighter~~ boxer.
But he does not want to fight.
And the old woman is his mother.
She wants his son to be the winner.
So she tell him to win the match.
But the baby is looking sad.
He was unhappy, he does not feel happy about this
The baby is sitting here and does not do
anything. His mother is very angry.
She is scolding ~~at~~ him.
There are many reporters.
They all want to take a photograph with the
baby. They are very trouble some.
The baby wants to give them a big ~~touch~~ punch!

Ma Yuk Luen

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# Oral Assessment: A Case for Continuous Assessment at HKCEE Level

**Ian M. Smallwood**
**The Hong Kong University of Science and Technology**

This paper examines the proposed changes for the oral component of the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination (HKCEE) paper for 1996 and outlines several areas of potential weakness. It argues that several elements of the paper are inappropriate in that little or no accurate evaluation of the candidate's true ability in oral production is likely to take place, either because of the effects of the evaluation instrument on the students or because of the design of the instrument itself. It goes on to indicate how possible attempts by the examination to encourage a more "Target-Oriented" washback effect are likely to fail.

Finally, a system of regular, intra-school assessments is detailed and justified as a possible method of overcoming many of the weaknesses of the proposed HKCE examination and of genuinely fostering the principles of a "Target-Oriented Curriculum" (TOC).

**香港中學會考英文口語經常性評定法**

香港考試局已提出一套將於一九九六年推行的香港中學會考英文口語評定法。本文旨在探討這個評估法所導致的變化，並指出這個新的評定法蘊滿若干弱點。由於評估的工具對學生產生影響，而評估工具在設計方面有缺點，考生的真正英文口語能力將不能獲得正確評定。為此，企圖利用這評定法來製造一個利於「以目標為本」的後回效應，祇會引致失敗。最後，本文詳細說明為何需要及如何能建立一個經常性的校內評定方法，以補救原本方法之不足，令這個新口語測試更能符合「以目標為本」的原則。

In a society such as Hong Kong, where there is such a wide disparity of income and where there is the resulting heavy emphasis on formal qualifications, public examinations have a dominant influence over almost all aspects of the school curriculum. Not only are they (supposedly) reflective, in that they assess the content of the curriculum, but they tend to become prescriptive as well, in that they "establish the aims and objectives which actually serve as teaching guidelines for the schools" (Fullilove, 1992, p.131). It has also been found that in such a society, the examinations greatly influence not only the aims and objectives of the curriculum but also the teaching styles used in the classrooms (Morris, 1985). The potential, therefore, for curriculum renewal through the effects of examination washback in such a situation are greatly increased. This, of course, means that changes to any aspect of the public examinations must take into account the full range of effects, both positive and negative, they will have on the curriculum as a whole or as related to a specific subject.

The aspect of the English language syllabus which has, perhaps, caused the most concern in recent years is the oral component. This concern can be seen by the recent allocation of 18% of the total weighting at both Advanced Supplementary (AS) level and at HKCEE level to oral proficiency (i.e. the new Use of English examination syllabus and the HKCEE examination syllabus proposed for 1996). This paper will concentrate on the proposed changes to the oral component of the syllabus at HKCEE level.

## Problems of the Proposed Changes to the HKCEE Oral Assessment

There can be few arguments against changing the oral component as it exists at present. It concentrates to a high degree on reading skills in part A, and the style of interviewing (referred to as the "conversation" in the examination syllabus) adopted in part B is of rather questionable suitability as an accurate and worthwhile assessment of a learner's oral proficiency (Hughes, 1989, p.104). In addition, the range of oral skills being assessed in the existing examination are very limited. Therefore, some form of change is desirable. However, the proposed changes to the examination may not be the best use of the very powerful washback effect mentioned earlier and still may not be the best way to evaluate either the learners' abilities or the appropriacy of the syllabus.

### *Validity*

The 1996 examination will have two sections: an interviewing and reporting back section followed by a group discussion section. There appear to be problems with both sections. At a more general level, it would seem logical to set examination activities which have been carried out in some form or other in the learners' L1. This would give some point of reference and authenticity to the activity, as well as easing the undoubted burden which role playing can place on many individuals. At a more specific level, the nature of the activity itself can be questioned. An interview situation is possibly the most common activity used in oral assessment — albeit with the assessor and assessee in the reverse roles of those in the examination in question — but it has been found that they are, perhaps, not necessarily the most suitable. Krashen (1987, p.179) points out that an examination item which requires the learner to merely ask or answer questions is not a true test of oral proficiency; and Hughes (1989, p.104) adds that this type of activity will, at best, only elicit one style of speech as the assessor will always be perceived as a superior — whether asking or answering questions. Other research has criticised the interview situation as a method of assessing oral proficiency as it does not allow for meaning to be negotiated (Alderson, 1981), for genuine interaction to take place (Kramsch, 1986) or for creative, as opposed to conformist, language to be used (Candlin, 1986).

The second part of this section, reporting back to a second examiner, would seem to be so dependent on the success of the first task as to be almost invalidated as a separate test item (Hughes, 1989, pp.36-37). Both activities, however, would be viable assessment tasks if they were individual items in a series of varied oral activities.

Of course, all test designs involve a certain amount of compromise between what is to be tested and the pragmatic constraints (discussed later in this paper) imposed on the test. However, allocating 9% of the total assessment to a test-type with so many potential problems is, perhaps, not appropriate. This is especially true when considered with another problem associated with examinations of all types, but particularly with oral production; that of learner anxiety.

### *Anxiety*

Research has shown that anxiety, whether manifested as a trait or as a state (Spielberg, 1966, pp.159-160), can have a pronounced effect on performance generally and can sometimes even enhance performance in certain skills. However, most evidence suggests that anxiety, unlike eu-/di- stress, has been found to be almost always debilitating in a learning or task-completion context. It has been found (Wine, 1971, pp.92-104) that anxious students are increasingly distracted by "task-irrelevant cognitions that deal with self-concern" (Heckhausen, 1982, p.247) from the actual task in question. As a result of this interference, Corno et al. (1981, pp.39-61) found that low-anxiety students generally performed significantly better in tasks related to general mental ability as well as those related to scholastic achievement than did high-anxiety students. These findings are supported by Tobias (1979, pp.578-582) who suggests that anxiety can adversely affect each major stage of the learning process: reception, processing and retrieval of information.

These negative effects of anxiety seem to be amplified when applied specifically to oral production generally and to oral production in L2 in particular. McCroskey (1984), for example, has labelled the effect "communication apprehension", which he defines as "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with ...oral communication with another person or persons." He goes on to show that the higher the communication apprehension, the less effective the communication becomes. In addition to lowering the standard of the oral production generally, this would have the added problem of disadvantaging the less extrovert learners more than the more extrovert (especially in group discussions). Krashen (1981) has pointed out that introverts tend to be more concerned with rule-obedience than fluency and so suffer in assessed oral interactions. The socially skilled, under-monitoring extrovert is therefore, favoured.

There are two general approaches, or teaching strategies, aimed at reducing these effects of anxiety. Many teachers (especially in Hong Kong) tend to treat the symptoms of anxiety rather than the cause itself in that the effects can be, to some extent, neutralised by encouraging the students to achieve varying degrees of "over-learning" (Biggs & Moore, 1993, p.245). Students are encouraged (or required) to memorize items or details "beyond the point necessary for perfect recall" (Biggs & Moore, 1993, p.245), so that the items can be remembered even when anxiety levels are increased; for example, during examinations. This method seems to concentrate on the reception and retrieval stages of learning at the expense of the processing level. Students in Hong Kong all too often seem able to recall specific information, but are unable to *use* the information in a meaningful way. A much more effective way, particularly when applied to the assessment of language proficiency, would seem to be to find ways in which the actual levels of anxiety felt by the students can be reduced.

Two major areas in which the levels of anxiety can be reduced are the extent to which a time limit is imposed on the task and the levels of difficulty, relative to the students' level of ability, of the task. Clearly, any examination imposes very severe time limitations and the 1996 oral examination seems to introduce levels of difficulty significantly higher than can be reasonably expected of the candidates being presented.

When the oral element of the AS level examination was first introduced, there was concern about the level of difficulty of the group discussion task. Because the activity would involve interpersonal interaction, the candidates would be "assessed on much higher level skills of communicative abilities over and above purely linguistic abilities" (Fullilove, 1992, p.143). It was thought that the learners would be able to cope with this type of activity because of their higher level of ability and because they would be given quite a high degree of relevant input in part A of the examination. The candidates at HKCEE level, however, as well as being of a lower linguistic level of development, seem to be given substantially less initial input in part A (in that they do not receive any written input to study; they do not hear the other three candidates' input until the group discussion begins; and their own input will not be of any direct use to them in part B of the examination). In effect, it could be argued that the skills being tested in the HKCEE are of a higher level than those assessed in the AS examination. If this is the case, the communication apprehension of the candidates would almost certainly be increased.

### *A conflict of purpose*

A further criticism of the proposed 1996 oral assessment is related to the purpose of the examination. An effective examination not only provides a clear evaluation of the abilities of the learners, but it also gives accurate feedback of the effectiveness of the syllabus being examined. The system of assessing the students in the present AS level (which we can assume to be the proposed system for the 1996 HKCEE level) is, basically, a norm-referenced device used to rank the candidates' relative standards and not to assess their absolute strengths and weaknesses. This means that little or no syllabus evaluation takes place and the syllabus evaluator can not use the examination to determine whether or not the syllabus has achieved its intended goals (Johnson, 1989, p.xxi). Therefore, we must assume that the oral component of the language syllabus as a whole is being evaluated very informally and probably at a school level rather than at a national level. If the school is, in fact, largely responsible for evaluating its own oral syllabus, there appears to be a case for allowing the school to be more involved in assessing the students' proficiency as well – thereby giving the school a more concrete method of evaluating the effectiveness of the syllabus.

It would seem from the above that a single examination, with all the attendant problems of student anxiety, limited focus, inappropriate context etc., is not the most effective method of assessing oral production. Underhill (1987) suggests that to be effective, oral tests:

> ... must be designed around the people who are going to be involved. This is a human approach: we want to encourage people to talk to each other as naturally as possible. The people, not the test instrument, are our first concern.

By designing the assessment around a series of classroom-based situations, carried out with the learners' colleagues, many of the problems can be solved and a more accurate assessment of the student achieved. Clearly, this approach is likely to have a real effect on the actual teaching styles used in the classroom regarding the encouragement of oral production by the students in a wide variety of contexts (something which at present does not tend to be encouraged and is sometimes actively discouraged). In this way the personal needs of the learners can be more equally balanced with the institutional aims and requirements of the syllabus, and thereby increase student motivation and syllabus effectiveness.

It appears from the rhetoric of the 1996 examination syllabus that this more task-based approach is being incorporated into the examination and that the ground for further target-oriented innovation is being prepared. The introduction to the English Examination as a whole now states that the overall aim of the syllabus is to "assess candidates' achievement of the aims of the syllabus" (HKCEE Regulations and Syllabuses 1996). The document then goes on to describe the exact nature of these aims. The aims of the 1994 examination have been changed from, for example, an assessment of the candidates' ability to understand English, to speak English, to write clear English, etc., to more specific aims such as "to *understand* ideas, facts, opinions and *feelings* presented through the medium of spoken and written English"; or "to respond to, *evaluate* and make use of ideas, facts, opinions and *feelings* which may be presented in an *integrated manner*...". The implicit references to TOC continue within the list of objectives by the use of expressions such as "a variety of *tasks*" and "given *tasks*". Clearly, the general aims and objectives of the examination have tried to encompass the general principles of a Target-Oriented Curriculum. However, the content of the examination does not reflect quite the same shift of emphasis and it is hard to determine how these aims could be fully realized within the proposed examination format.

### *Negative washback*

As one of the most basic principles of a TOC is the lack of norm referencing, it would seem likely that an assessment procedure which attempts to combine TOC aims and objectives with norm-referenced procedures will encounter problems. By definition, the use of language – especially spoken language – must involve some form of cooperative, interpersonal communication. It would follow, therefore, that any assessment of such a highly communicative activity should reflect the cooperative skills necessary for success in the activity. This is not the case with the 1996 oral paper, even though it does claim to assess the process of the task given to the candidates and not simply the product of the task. The examination syllabus specifies that "strategies in interaction" (English Language Syllabus, 1996) will be assessed and that "emphasis will be on effective communication rather than task completion". However, an analysis of this paper will indicate that the adoption of any genuinely cooperative skills is not encouraged by the assessment structures used. The students are informed in Section B of the examination that they must work cooperatively in a group of four to complete a task of some sort. They are told that credit will be given for interactive discussion skills such as turn-taking, encouraging quieter members of the group to contribute, etc. However, the students are fully aware that they are being assessed and ranked individually on a daily basis. In other words, the procedure attempts to artificially create a cooperative structure, in which there would be positive interdependence but, as the candidates know they are in direct competition with each other the procedure actually creates a competitive structure with negative interdependence as, to some extent, "success for one student reduces the chances that other students will succeed" (Crooks, 1988, p.458). This is one example of the type of conflict which is likely to occur when the curriculum and assessment procedures do not match.

Of course, it could be argued that by including these aims in the assessment system, the washback effect from the examination would make it easier to bring about the necessary changes to the curriculum at a later stage. The washback of this, the most "cooperative" element of the assessment procedure, is almost entirely negative, however, in that it simply reinforces the students' competitive approach by extending it to what should naturally be cooperative contexts. It is quite possible, for example, that they will be taught how to focus attention on themselves (possibly at the expense of other group members) while appearing to be involved in a group activity. Many students (and some teachers) perceive the "social leader" of the group as being able to demonstrate more of the skills being assessed and, therefore, try to emulate this role. Persuasive skills are seen as being evidence of greater communicative ability than, for example, the ability to listen to arguments and adjust opinions accordingly. They may tend to compete to summarize the arguments and come to a conclusion. Clearly, genuine cooperation will struggle to survive in such an environment. What is needed is a regular, flexible, more genuinely cooperative, task-based, non-threatening system of assessment. The only way this can be achieved seems to be by introducing a system of continuous assessment conducted throughout the students' final year of study.

## An Alternative: The Case for Continuous Assessment

Whenever a system of regular, accumulative assessment items is suggested, two general areas of concern are often expressed: the constant pressure which may be created in a system of *continuous* assessment, and the potential problem of reliability of results. Because of the nature of oral testing, it is felt that the usual concerns regarding this form of assessment can be overcome:

> In order to free oral tests from the burden of conventional language testing wisdom, they should be considered as a class of their own. (Underhill, 1987, p.3)

### *Alleviating anxiety*

The first objection, that continuous assessment can place undue pressure on the students, is a very valid concern in a society such as exists in Hong Kong. Students are placed under enormous pressure at examination times and any increase or extension of this pressure must be avoided. However, it is felt that the system of assessment being proposed here would lessen, rather than increase, the pressure. The whole rationale of the proposed system is to reduce the student-anxiety during the individual test items. One method of achieving this would be to allow for the occasional weaker performance by requiring a minimum number of item-scores to be submitted (i.e. any test items in excess of the minimum would be disregarded). This is likely to lead to increased confidence in the students by decreasing the perceived importance of each individual item. In addition, the nature of the tasks would mean that the students could not "prepare" for them by memorizing "useful" expressions (as many students are likely to do for the 1996 examination). Therefore, again, the pressure would be reduced — in addition to the more obvious benefit of the tasks assessing more genuine language production and not, to some extent, a series of pre-drilled expressions.

### *Enhancing reliability and validity*

The question of reliability is rather more difficult to overcome as the system has to be perceived as being reliable by such a wide range of involved groups (e.g. students, teachers, schools, parents, tertiary institutes, professional bodies, government, etc.). However, with careful planning, it is felt that an acceptable method of ensuring reliability can be developed — especially as the present system is often regarded as being rather subjective and inaccurate. Morris (1991) suggests that when considering the question of examination reliability, we should consider four individual topics: the objectivity of the assessment, the efficiency of the system of assessment, the competence of the assessors and the cultural attitudes of the society towards education and examinations in particular. The last point, the cultural attitudes of society, is certainly a factor to be considered, but in this context it is felt that if the first three criteria could be shown to be effective, then society — including the teachers who would have to implement the new system — could reasonably be expected to accept the proposals as the new assessment procedures would be more reliable than the existing arrangements.

Of the other three criteria to be met, perhaps the most controversial is the question of objectivity. As was discussed earlier, the public examination system in Hong Kong must be seen by everybody as being a fair and accurate assessment of each individual student's true ability or achievement. If any suspicion of bias or partiality is felt, the assessment system would fail. There are many ways of ensuring different levels of objectivity. Being assessed by a total stranger, as happens at present, is probably the most objective method. However, this may ensure the assessment is fair, but, for reasons given earlier, does not ensure it is accurate. The assessment should be carried out in an environment familiar to the student and, at least in part, by somebody familiar to him/her.

A compromise would seem to be a system which has been running in similar formats in some parts of the world (e.g. Scotland) for some years. This is a system whereby a group of schools in a particular area work together as one assessment unit. The assessment schedule is worked out so that for each assessment there can be the normal class teacher present and a visiting teacher from one of the other schools. The visiting teachers work on a rota so that they only visit the same class once. Each area has a person assigned by the Education Department as a "senior moderator" who can join any of the assessments at any time. This system, as well as ensuring the impartiality of the procedure (in as much as any form of oral assessment can be impartial), encourages inter-school cooperation in developing the materials, etc. to be used in the tests themselves and to be used in preparing the students for the tests. In this way, schools can develop their resources of testing *and* teaching materials, whereas at the moment they tend to only develop banks of testing materials (previous examination papers) which they use — or misuse — as teaching materials. If an extra measure of assessment appraisal was felt to be necessary, it would be relatively easy to incorporate a final examination, conducted by a pair of visiting teachers without the presence of the class teacher, as a final safeguard. The final examination would only count for a limited percentage of the total assessment allocation, but would serve as an independent monitor of the standard of the schools' internal evaluations (with the understanding that the result in the external examination is likely to be lower for reasons previously outlined).

### *Pragmatic considerations*

The system of school-grouping outlined above would, if it was applied with the present staffing situation, cause some problems in terms of teacher timetabling within each individual school. The problem would be greatly diminished by each school being allowed one extra teacher for senior forms. The government (Education Department) clearly believes that the oral element of the syllabus is increasing in importance and should be able to support this increase in importance with an increase in available funds. These funds would be needed not only for the additional teachers required but the additional number of clerical staff (within the examinations board) required to ensure the efficiency of the procedures and accuracy of the recording of the assessments.

In addition to increasing the levels of staffing available, there must also be an increase in the level of competence of the teachers involved. Hong Kong does have the advantage of having an abundance of highly trained and dedicated teachers but oral testing and teaching techniques tend to be given rather low priority in many teacher training (and school) syllabuses. Post-experience re-training courses and a greater emphasis placed on oral teaching/testing techniques in teacher education programmes could easily improve the situation. This would have the added benefit of creating a fairly powerful washback of more effective approaches to oral teaching as well as testing throughout all levels of secondary schools, not just in S5. Of course, any increase in the expertise or competence of the teachers would, in all probability, lead to an increase in their perceived professionalism and therefore in the perceived reliability of the assessment system. As a final safeguard of its efficiency, it would be piloted for as long as was felt necessary, i.e. until the system and the teachers met the required level of efficiency and competence, and the schools had integrated the system into their own situation in terms of classroom accommodation, timetabling, etc.

On first consideration, this proposed change to the assessment of oral skills in Hong Kong may seem rather ambitious. However, Hong Kong has many advantages if this system were to be used. One of the main difficulties in using a system of regular (or continuous) assessment in any educational system is the problem of the size and distribution of the student population being assessed. Hong Kong, although a very densely populated area, is relatively small both geographically and demographically and so the system would be easier to initially construct and subsequently monitor than in most other countries (some of which have already adopted assessment methods similar to the one proposed in this paper).

## Conclusion

The present system of assessing oral proficiency of secondary students in Hong Kong does not seem to provide an accurate appraisal of the targeted skills, and the skills that are targeted are very limited. This has been recognised as a failing in the curriculum and changes will be implemented in 1996. These changes are an improvement on the present assessment design, however it is felt that they still do not adequately evaluate the students' true abilities. In addition, from the curriculum design viewpoint, they will give almost no indication of any strengths or weaknesses the oral syllabus may have. Therefore, a system of regular assessments is proposed to be implemented instead of the system outlined for 1996.

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# 有效的體育教學管理

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在體育教學的過程中，教師經常利用不同的教學技術，目的是要學生獲得最多的學習時間，從而達成預定的教學目標。當中，教學管理技巧是最令體育教師及有關人士所關注的課題。本文從教學設計、教學環境以及教學安全三方面，探討管理技巧在本地體育教學上的重要性與應用方法。

## Effective Management Skills in Teaching Physical Education

In the instructional process of physical education, teachers attempt to use a variety of teaching strategies and techniques in order to maximize students' learning time and to achieve the instructional goals. Among these, management skills are a topic of major interest and concern to teachers and school administrators. The purpose of this paper is to discuss the importance and application of management skills in three areas of physical education in Hong Kong: the planning of the instructional programme, the preparation of the teaching learning environment, and the management of the saftey factors.

## 有效的體育教學管理

「成功的體育教學，必須包含有效的管理方法」(Rink, 1993)，毫無疑問，這句話已被肯定。許多文獻及研究報告指出，課室管理與組織，是成功教學的重要因素 (Sanford, 1981; Siedentop, 1986; Soar, 1979)。在香港這個彈丸之地，體育教師往往需要在有限的空間和設備下，進行各種運動技能的教學，而每班的學生人數通常是四十至五十人不等，在這「人多地少」的環境下，能否達至有效的教學效果，答案顯然仍是一個問號。根據一九九二年的一項問卷調查指出，影響本地中、小學體育教師達成教學目標的主要因素包括「場地設施的供應」及「課室管理的技巧」(Ha, 1993)；然而，即使擁有足夠的運動場地及設施，有系統的課室管理與組織，依然扮演着一個極爲重要的角色。

體育課室管理，在七十年代已被視爲現代體育教師必備的專業知識 (Duke, 1979)。在體育教學中，課室管理的定義是：「在有系統而安全的環境下，進行各種運動技能的教學，以達至預定的教學目標」(Doyle, 1986)。一般而言，本地的體育教師需在三十五至七十分鐘內（單堂或連堂）進行一連串的教學活動，當中包括：點名、擺設運動器材、熱身運動、講解教學內容、示範動作、編排組別練習、糾正學生的錯誤動作、個別指導、秩序管理、檢討及總結等各項工作，假如缺乏妥善的計劃和安排，在面對這多項的任務時，便很難達成預定的教學目標。而對於不負責任的教師而言，所採用的教學方法，莫過於讓學生自由活動，教育目標跟本無從說起，體育課只淪爲其他科目的歇息時間吧了！

## 體育教學的管理技巧

在管理學的理論中，管理人所負責的任務是多元化的，當中包括計劃、組織、決策、領導、協調、控制、及評鑑等元素 (Bush & Licata, 1983)。而作爲一個現代的專業體育教師，應懂得如何應用這些管理學的元素在實際的教學工作上。根據現今香港的中、小學體育教師工作內容分析，大部份的同工所負責的事項包括：任教體育科及其他科目、訓練校隊、帶隊往校外比賽、以及執行校內的行政工作。而對這複雜瑣碎的事務，除日常上班的時間外，還要利用週末的時間帶隊和備課。要解決這多元化的角色問題，體育教師必須有效地掌握以下三類技巧：

- 教學設計的管理
- 教學環境的管理
- 教學安全的管理

使本身的教學水準，不斷獲得提昇 (Rink, 1993)。

### 一、教學設計的管理

要成爲一個優秀的教育工作者，對整體的教

學過程，必須有深入的瞭解。Harrison & Blakemore (1989) 指出，體育教學的過程可分爲計劃、實踐教學、及評鑑三個階段。在進行這三個程序時，教師可基於下列五項原則，把擬定的課程內容，有效地傳授給學生：

**1．配合學生的需要和興趣**

體育教學的目標是要使學生透過大肌肉的活動，達成個人全面的身心發展，在選擇教學內容時，學生的需要和興趣，將成爲整個課程的重點 (Carnahan, 1980)，教師可根據學習的三大領域去瞭解和領會學生的需要和興趣：

(i) 技能領域

教師教導學生如何從簡單的動作學習各種運動技能，當中包括跑、跳、擲等基本元素。在教學的過程中，其內容必須是循序漸進，由淺入深，對於一些較爲複雜的動作和概念，教師要懂得以簡單的講解和示範展示給學生，這樣才能配合學生的能力和需要，並能引發他們的學習興趣，過於艱深和複雜的教學內容，祇會對學生的需要和學習動機，產生負面的影響 (Wurzer, 1982)。

(ii) 認知領域

基於體育是一種透過身體活動去達成學習目標的科目，不少體育教師會過份偏重於技能領域的發展，而忽略了學生在認知領域的學習。在各項運動技能中，幾乎所有的身體活動是伴隨着大腦的活動，其中包括觀察、分析、判斷、記憶等認知過程 (Magill, 1989)。因此，一個全人的體育教學，必須包括認知領域的訓練，培養學生透過思考和反省，吸取更多的體育知識和概念，使學習內容更爲豐富。

(iii) 情意領域

透過體育運動的學習來認識正確的道德觀念，培養學生自發自律、身體力行的優良品格，然而，只談道德認知，而未能達成道德實踐，是一種不着實際的做法。因此，在教師宣揚體育或運動精神時，必須確定學生對公平、自強、無私、合作等有着正確的認知，並能透過體育活動去實踐這些理念。

**2．充份利用現存資源**

資源是否充足，往往是見人見智的，而管理學的精要，是如何充份發揮現存的資源。在體育教學中，教師對學生的活動時間、空間及運動器材的分配，應該要仔細地處理。一般而言「平均分配」是基本的處理原則 (Locke, 1977)，而分配的項目包括：

(i) 活動時間

現時香港的中、小學體育課是以連堂一次或單堂兩次進行，時間爲三十五分鐘至一小時十分不等，當中無論是單堂或連堂方式，熱身運動和主要活動（所教授的項目，例如排球的下手傳球），應佔總時間的三份二，其餘三份一時間則用作點名、整理秩序、調整運動及總結教學等。以下（表一）用三十五分鐘一節爲例，說明如何有效地分配時間：

表一：一節課的時間分配

| | |
|---|---|
| 001－005 | 點名及領取器材。教師在學期開始時，把學生分爲若干組，每組設組兩名，負責點名及取器材，而組長的人選，應定時更換，使每個學生均有做組長的機會。在此同時，教師則處理請假及服裝不整的學生。 |
| 006－012 | 熱身運動時間大約是五至八分鐘，視乎天氣情況及教授項目的運動強度而定，通常在氣溫較低或所需的運動量較大時，熱身時間會較長，使身體有足夠的準備，避免受傷。 |
| 013－030 | 主要活動包括講解、示範、分組練習及個別指導等，當中教師必須有效地分配組別及盡量利用空間和器材，否則，可能會浪費不必要的時間在疏導秩序問題。在分組時，每組學生的運動能力應該平均分配，絕不能以學生的運動能力高低，而分成「強」與「弱」等組別。 |
| 031－035 | 調整運動、檢討學習和收拾器材。 |

(ii) 活動空間和器材

要平均分配學生的活動空間和器材，教師在佈置教學環境時要多花心思。即使有充裕的場地和器材，如未能好好利用，便會浪費資源。再者，在體育運動中，學生經常與器材或其他同伴有着密切的接觸，容易造成碰撞，因此，在利用現存的空間時，要清楚界定每組學生的活動範圍，和組與組之間的合宜距離。器材方面，要適當地分配數量，而器材的大小是否能配合學生的年齡及運動能力，亦會造成不同的學習效果。另外，教師亦需教導學生對所使用的器材負責任，不能把器材或用具隨意破壞及棄置，不然，再多的資源也不夠用。

**3．引起學生的學習動機**

要成功地引起學生的學習動機，教師要注意下列各點：

(i) 提供輕鬆的學習環境

所謂輕鬆的學習環境，是指教師與學生之間要建立友善的關係，教師多用幽默、鼓勵、和正面指導的教學法去教授學生；假如師生之間經常保持對立的態度，即使有最好的運動器材和課程內容，亦難以引起學生的興趣。Brophy (1981, 1982) 指出，教師給予學生正面的指導和鼓勵，往往能造成較佳的學習效果；一般教師，許多時候會低估了「鼓勵和稱讚」對學習上的正面影響。

(ii) 設計有趣味性的課程

在設計課程方面，教師不能墨守城規，老是重覆機械式的活動，在教學當中，可加插遊戲、小組比賽或配以音樂的活動去進行，以提高整體的學習氣氛 (Phillips & Carlisle, 1983)。

(iii) 給予學生在學習上的成功感

任何的體育活動，或多或少都存着競技的意味，學生在學習的過程中，都會追求進步和成功感。成功感的多少，往往會影響學生的參與和學習動機 (Blakemore, 1986)。現今的體育教師常抱怨學生「一代不如一代」、「電子遊戲機舖取代了運動場」。歸根究底，學生在運動場得到的是成功感或是挫敗感，教師要好好反思。相反，電子遊戲機卻給予青少年不斷挑戰自我的機會，即使所得的分數不高，亦不會受到責罵或負面的批評。要使學生在運動場上獲得更多的成功感，教師須引導學生定下個人的學習目標，鼓勵學生多作嘗試，並解釋練習的次數和時間對達成目標的關係和重要性，持之以恒，才能使運動技術獲得提升。

(iv) 提供個別及有建設性的指導

不同的學生在學習階段會出現不同的問題，因此，教師要因應各種的問題提供個別指導 (Coffman, 1991)。有些教師只會批評學生動作不對，指出錯處，卻未能給予正確的示範，最後，學生在心理上不斷產生被否定和失敗的感覺，繼而放棄嘗試，對體育課望而生畏。個別和有建設性的指導，可以使學生在羣體的學習中，認識自我的能力，並能計對個人的問題，作出適當的改正；教師亦可向學生解釋學習上的個別差異，減少學生與同伴比較的情況 (Rogers, 1983)。

(v) 引起學生自發性的參與

若體育教師能夠做到上述(i)至(iv)點，學生自然對體育課感到興趣，這些外在的因素，能夠引起學生內在的學習動機，當學生在學習上獲得進步和肯定時，對於體育運動便能抱着積極的態度參與。

**4．考查學生的進度**

考查學生在學習中的進度，可從下列各點進行：

(i) 記錄學生的個人資料，如身高、體重、和個人的健康情況。

(ii) 記錄學生的出席率，經常缺席的學生是難以在學習進度上獲得成果，此外，教師要找出學生經常缺課的眞正原因。

(iii) 進行體能或運動技術的測試

要瞭解學生的能力和學習進度，教師必須定期爲學生做體能或運動技術測試，

根據客觀的數據比較和教師專業的觀察，便能對學生的進度有更深入的認識。

(iv) 考核運動知識

除運動技術測驗外，教師亦可用簡單的筆試，測驗學生的運動知識。

**5. 建立評鑑的方法**

有效的管理方法，其中一項重要而不可缺少的步驟就是建立一套評鑑的方法，確定學生在指定的時間內，獲得一定程度的學習成果。而體育教學中，評鑑內容可分爲三方面 (Baumgartner & Jackson, 1991)：

(i) 透過運動技術測驗或比賽，評估學生的運動技能的成績。

(ii) 利用筆試，是非題或選擇題，考核學生的體育知識。

(iii) 對於學生在情意領域的發展，教師可透過觀察或利用體育精神的核照表（例如合作、公平、無私、全力以赴及勇於嘗試等）考核學生的情意發展。

## 二、教學環境的管理

多國研究指出，有效的體育教學是教師與學生有良好的溝通，而學生能夠清楚明白教師對他們的要求 (O'Sullivan & Dyson, 1994; LaMaster & Lacy, 1993; Gusthart & Springings, 1989)。因此，佈置理想的教學環境是提高學生學習效果的主要途徑。Laslett (1984) 提出了四項教學環境及教室管理的大原則，且看這項原則在體育教學的應用：

**1. 管理程序要簡單明確**

在體育教學中，教師要與四十多名學生共處一室，在這空間限制下，一方面要使學生透過各種身體活動去達成學習目標，另一方面又要注意學生在活動中的安全問題，要達成這兩方面的要求，教師須建立一套簡單而實用的管理方法，例如制定一些簡易的上課規則，列明對以下各點的要求：

(i) 上課時間

(ii) 上課服裝

(iii) 請假手續

(iv) 個人秩序

(v) 安全守則

(vi) 雨天安排

表二是體育課學生須知的例子，教師可用作參考，因應不同的上課環境，可自行加添不同的規則，然後把這些規則張貼於課室或運動場的牆壁上，使學生能經常看到，清楚明白上體育課的要求，至於面對未能遵守規則的同學，教師須視乎不同情況彈性處理。

表二：體育課學生須知事項

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1. 上課鐘響過 5 分鐘後，學生應已穿著整齊體育服裝向組長報到。
2. 服裝不整齊者，亦須和其他同學一起上課，並以筆記方式，記錄上課內容。
3. 凡申請病假或事假的同學，須出示醫生証明書或家長信。
4. 排隊時，不得故意推碰同學，避免秩序混亂。
5. 未經教師批准，學生不得隨便移動運動器材或擅自進行活動。
6. 遇操場濕滑時，學生不得追逐或進行體育活動，以免造成意外。
7. 下雨天，學生應在課室內等候教師。

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**2. 管理方法要確實有效**

最佳的管理方法，是講求實際的效益，教師在設計和選擇管理方法時，要因應學生的年齡和性格，而採取適當的管理方法；然而，專家指出，其中一個最有效的課室管理方法，就是啓發學生瞭解「自我管理」的重要性，在羣體中如何發揮自律精神 (Allard, 1979; Aufderheide, 1980; Berkey, 1986)。通常教師會假設學生「應該」懂得如何自律，認爲自律是學生早已知道或理所當然的事，而沒有進一步向學生解釋自我管理對個人和整體學習的幫助，於是，當學生的行爲出現偏差時，教師會誤以爲學生故意造反，而學生卻感到無辜地接受懲罰；最後，教師會抱怨一句：「現今的學生越來越難教」，而管理技巧亦漸漸被忽視。爲使教師與學生能夠有更多的溝通，教師應：

(i) 對學生清楚解釋上課的規則或要求。

(ii) 對所有學生的處理，要一視同仁。

(iii) 確定學生瞭解被處罰的原因。

(iv) 一經被處罰後，學生便應獲得自由，教師不應對該學生作不善意的對待。

(v) 處罰方法應有適量的自由度，處罰的目的是要學生對自己的行爲負上責任，而不是要把他們置諸死地。

**3．建立課堂常規**

一節完整的體育課應包括下列的常規(Harrison & Blakemorn, 1989)：

(i) 點名

如前所述，教師可指派組長負責點名工作，節省時間。

(ii) 領取及擺設運動器材

工作安排應因應不同情況而定，輕便的器材可由組長負責領取，需要作特別擺設或較重的器材，必須由教師自行負責或帶領學生進行，以策安全。

(iii) 運動服裝

服裝必須整齊，未能符合要求的學生，應獲得適當的處理。

(iv) 病假或事假的處理

教師對請假的學生要特別小心處理，學生不上體育課不離兩種原因，簡單原因和複雜原因。簡單原因是指身體不適和一些突發的事情，教師需建立一套方法去處理這些個案，例如學生經常請病假，教師應該與家長聯絡，瞭解學生的健康狀態。至於複雜的原因是指學生藉着請假逃避上體育課，要查明眞正的原因，教師應利用下課後的時間去處理。

(v) 運用哨子或手勢

要使學生有秩序而愉快地進行體育課，教師必須懂得運用哨子或手勢與學生溝通，在空曠的運動場上，教師說話的聲音會相對減低，因此，哨子和手勢是說話的最佳代用品。在學期開始時，教師要清楚解釋不同手勢和哨子聲音所代表的意思，並訓練學生熟習這些訊號。

**4．教導學生定下個人的學習目標**

面對來自不同運動能力的學生，個別差異是必然的現象。要解決學習上的個別差異問題，教師要指導學生定下個人的學習目標，避免與同伴比較。在擬定個人的學習目標時，教師要引導學生瞭解本身的興趣和能力，並強調運動對個人身心發展的重要性；對於運動能力低的學生，教師應給予更多的鼓勵和正面的回饋；而運動能力高的學生，則鼓勵參與課餘的運動訓練，盡量發揮個人在運動方面的最大潛能(Rink, 1993)。

## 三、教學安全的管理

要使學生在一個安全的環境下學習體育運動，教學安全管理是不容忽視的(Appenzeller 1980)。體育是一種動態形的教學，學生經常與運動器材及其他人接觸，容易造成碰撞或損傷，如能做好教學安全管理，相信不必要的意外可以減至最低。縱使教學安全的研究報告並不多，卻有多位體育學者提出下列各項重點，以提高體育教師的教學安全管理技巧(Bayless & Adams, 1985, Carpenter & Acosta; Nygaard, 1981)：

(i) 定期檢查場地及器材的可用性及安全程度。

(ii) 在太冷或太熱的氣溫下上課，要留心觀察學生對該項運動的生理反應，隨時作出適當的調整。

(iii) 在室內上課，要注意空氣的流通程度。

(iv) 發生意外時，需作適當的處理，例如教師不能離開現場，並安排組長支援有關人士或取急救藥物。對於意外的處理程序，教師應在平時給予學生正確的指導和認識，當遇到意外發生時，才不致手足無措。

(v) 在學期開始時，要清楚瞭解學生的健康狀況，長期不能參與體育課的學生，教師應作出適當的安排。

此外，體育教師的專業知識，應包括安全的教學法、一般運動和訓練原則，是要配合學生的年齡和學習階段，否則很容易造成運動傷害，安全教學法的原則包括(Rink, 1993)：

(i) 足夠的熱身運動。

(ii) 正確和不同角度的運動示範。

(iii) 複雜的運動項目，應以分段式的教導和練習進行。

(iv) 教導學生瞭解本身的運動能力，要循序漸進，不能勉強。

(v) 教導學生注意運動項目的學習程序，避免違反安全守則，而造成不必要的傷害。

(vi) 分配組別時，如兩人一組，兩者的體形和能力不能相距太遠，否則容易造成危險。

## 結語

要有效而安全地進行體育教學工作，教師必須經常對本身的教學技術作出反思和檢討。體育教學在本地已漸漸邁向「優質」階段：學位教師不斷增加，運動設施亦不斷補充；在各種外在因素獲得提升下，體育同工也應該不斷努力，讓這一代的學生能夠擁有一個有效而健康的學習環境。體育教學要走在有系統的管理道路上，教師必須在教學設計、教學環境及教學安全三方面，履行應盡的責任和作出充份的準備。

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# Business Students' Preferences in Learning Situations

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Noting that students do not always respond positively to the teaching methods used, this research was designed to investigate student preferences with respect to different teaching modes. The students in the sample were all from one Business course at the City Polytechnic of Hong Kong. The data were collected by means of a questionnaire which focused on the students' experience of interactive modes and their preferences in both lectures and tutorials. While very few students had experienced a highly participative lecture, they expressed the least preference for formal lectures and the greatest preference for lectures that included videos or videos and question periods. For tutorials there were strong preferences for group activities while individual presentations were the least preferred. Strong preferences were also expressed for small tutorial group size and for the combined use of English and Cantonese. In this exploratory study which investigated only one part of the teacher and student relationship, more questions have been raised than answered. However, the study does suggest that certain preferences of students are obvious and should be incorporated in the design and development of the course.

## 商管學生所喜好的教學方式

一直以來學生在課程設計及教學方式的選擇並沒太大的參與。本研究以城市理工學院商業高級文憑學生為對象，嘗試了解學生對各種教學方式的喜好。本研究有數個有趣的發現：

（一）在講課時，學生較喜歡除講授外，再加插與課文有關的錄影帶。

（二）在小組輔導時，學生較喜歡小組討論形式而排斥學生個人報告。

（三）在語文運用方面，大部份學生較喜歡中、英文並用，只有小部份寧取單語授課或討論。

雖然這是一個初步的研究，但學生對不同方式的喜好是很明顯的。本文作者更希望藉此令教育工作者對學生所喜愛的方式有所了解，及考慮在教材設計上加以配合，從而提高學生的學習興趣。

## Background

Personal experience and anecdotal evidence from colleagues suggest a tendency for Hong Kong Business and Management students to be somewhat passive and inactive in interactive learning situations. "Interactive learning situations" refer to teaching situations where the teacher and the learners are brought together in a small classroom setting for an active exchange process specially designed to enhance achievement of educational goals. This particular kind of interactive relationship is fundamental to teaching and learning strategies. Many educational activities are structured around this relationship, yet these planned interactive experiences can end in frustration for the teacher and with condemnation of the learners for their lack of responsiveness.

Teachers use a variety of methods and embody in them the precepts of learning theories. By these they attempt to enable learners to develop high levels of concept integration and synthesis which are designed to provide the learners with the facility for a better and deeper understanding of their world (Kolb, 1984). In Hong Kong, as part of introductory courses on behaviour, some business students receive information about learning theories and, through the use of various kinds of questionnaires, they identify their own strengths in learning style. The question arises: Why should it be frustrating to teach able students when most do pass the assessment devised by their teachers, and they do have an awareness of learning as a process? And why, as we know from other research, do students maintain surface learning rather than deep learning strategies (Stokes, Balla, & Stafford, 1989)?

Our goal is to explore and understand the factors which affect the dynamics of the teaching-learning interactive relationship. The systems theory approach has been used to guide this particular inquiry. The essence of systems theory is that the transformation of input into a system is a dynamic process and that each system consists of a number of subparts which do not stand alone as separate elements but are interrelated and interconnected, each part influencing every other part (Etzioni, 1961). Such interconnectedness is a crucial aspect of the student-teacher relationship. The connection and interactivity may vary from very little to a great deal but the connection is always there. Another important factor is that systems theory recognises environmental influences, and it is clear that wider social and cultural issues affect the teaching situation. From this approach it follows that one cannot make sense of the situation unless both the teacher and the students are part of the analysis. The major elements of the teaching and learning system are set out in Figure 1.

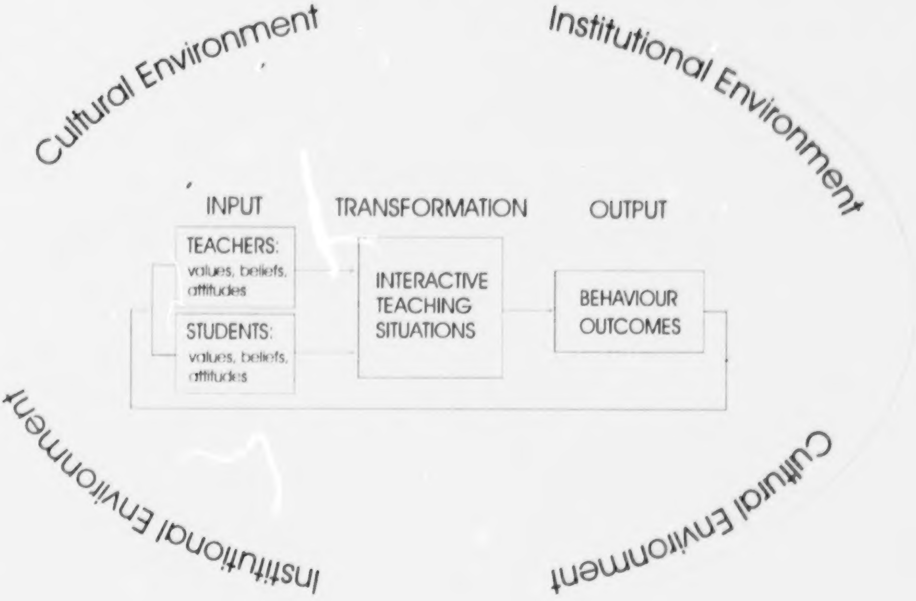
Cultural Environment
Institutional Environment
INPUT
TRANSFORMATION
OUTPUT
TEACHERS:
values, beliefs, attitudes
STUDENTS:
values, beliefs, attitudes
INTERACTIVE TEACHING SITUATIONS
BEHAVIOUR OUTCOMES
Institutional Environment
Cultural Environment

Figure 1: Teaching and Learning system

## The Cultural Environment

In the Business and Management subject area, one of the burgeoning areas of interest is cross cultural management. At many different levels of analysis it is clear that western concepts and theories do not explain eastern practices. It is now recognised in this field that culture is a mediating variable in organization behaviour and the ways in which organizations are structured (Hofstede, 1980).

With reference to the field of education, Bray (1988) has commented that recent attempts to introduce more western styles of teaching in Asia, driven by western values of discovery as opposed to rote learning for example, have not always succeeded. Pai (1990) has suggested that the notion of viewing differences not as deficits is useful in exposing ethnocentric assumptions underlying various educational programmes. Cheng (1986) has commented that the Hong Kong school curriculum remains largely conformist with little evidence of a shift to cater for individual needs, and argues that the prevailing "folklore" is that students should be educated to fit the system, rather than for self development. He relates this to traditional Confucian values, which dominate even the developed, industrial and international society of Hong Kong. Liu (1986) has suggested that respecting supervisors, memorizing lessons, and practising skills are all easily recognisable behavioural rules that shape Chinese cognitive processes. These are the beliefs and values which students bring with them to their tertiary institution, shaping their attitudes and behaviours. The environment is predisposing students to a passive learning role.

## The Institutional Environment

The City Polytechnic of Hong Kong (CPHK) is the institution in which this study took place. At CPHK courses are developed by a Course Planning Team. Each course consists of a number of modules. The syllabuses of individual modules are designed by subject specialists and are later validated by panels. The panels also consist of academics for the most part. A consideration of teaching methods is a required part of the development process of courses and modules. All course documents include a statement on overall aims and objectives and these influence the selection of teaching methods. Most of the methods used are chosen and devised by the teacher. Whilst this may seem a natural process, there is one major factor which is missing — the students. Once in the classroom this significant factor comes into play, as students are a " powerful part of the learning environment" (Joyce & Weil, 1986). Students react in different ways to the various teaching methods which they encounter. Sometimes, there is a mismatch between teachers' expectations of student reaction and behaviour and the students' attitudes and preferences in teaching methods.

## The Study

As mentioned above, in examining the course structure through the systems framework, the input from students is found missing. It can be argued that it is very unlikely that students would ever have any direct input into the design procedure of teaching arrangements, particularly for new modules and courses. It is likely that teachers will always have the predominant role in designing the content and process of courses, and any student input can only make its way to the system via the teacher. We expect an information or knowledge gap between teachers and students concerning ways of learning. The study we carried out was a preliminary exploration of the phenomenon and it aimed to improve our understanding of the gap. It focused on the students, and asked which teaching methods they had experienced. Most important, it asked which ones they preferred.

## The Sample

Our sample was taken from students studying for the Higher Diploma in Business Studies (HDBS) at CPHK. The aim of the HDBS course is to provide a practical introduction to business life which serves both as a broad educational experience and as a preparation for employment, particularly in the commercial and industrial sectors of Hong Kong. The sample consisted of full-time and part-time students at the end of their first year of study.

## The Instrument

For this study, we had considered using either questionnaires or interviews as our data collection method. Since we wished to have a larger sample size at a low cost and to avoid the influence of socially preferred answers (see Wiersma, 1986), we decided to use a questionnaire for this study. The self-developed questionnaire consisted of four parts: the students' past experience with various teaching methods in lectures and tutorials; their preferences for teaching methods in both lectures and tutorials; their preferences in the language of instruction and class size; and demographic information were asked correspondingly in the four parts. Questions in the second and third parts were answered on 5 point Likert scales.

The questionnaire was tested on a group of 30 HDBS full-time students and various modifications were incorporated after the pilot study. The questionnaires were then distributed to one group of full-time and one group of part-time students after their week nine lecture session and collected immediately upon completion. The total sample size was 177, with 142 full-time students and 35 part-time students.

## Findings

Because of the exploratory nature of this study, the results are presented as a description of the general nature of the students' preferences.

### *Demographics*

There were 142 usable returns from full-timers, representing a 72.8% response rate. The 30:70 ratio of males:females in the year's full-time intake was reflected in the returns. The part-timers provided 35 usable returns with a response rate of 33%. The year's male:female ratio for part-timers, which was almost 50:50 for the management studies option and 57:43 for the regular option, was not reflected in the ratio of returns of 30:70.

The age group mainly concentrated in the range of <19-19 (31%) to 20-24 (56%). The older groups of 25-30 (12%) and 31-≥31 (1%) were a minority.

As to students' first language, 99% indicated that it was Cantonese.

### *Student experiences of teaching methods*

Students were asked whether they had experienced any of the following in lectures: completely formal lectures; lectures with video; lectures with a question period; lectures with discussions; or highly participative lectures with discussions, group activities and feedback. Most of the students (92%) had experienced fully formal lectures, and lectures with video. Very few students (3%) had experienced highly participative lectures. Students were also asked whether they had experienced different types of teaching methods in tutorials. Most of the students (81%) had the experience of tutor-led discussions. A limited number of students (32%) had experienced role plays in tutorials.

### *Student preferences for teaching methods*

Different combinations of teaching methods were included for the students to indicate their preferences. For lectures, the most preferred teaching methods were lectures with video, and lectures with video and a question period. It is obvious that any combination of a lecture with the use of video as one of its components was preferred by the students. The videos being shown to business students in CPHK are usually professionally produced business videos which last 15 to 20 minutes. The teacher usually picked videos with content complementary to the lecture. The least preferred methods were 100% formal lectures, and lectures with discussion. For tutorials, the most preferred teaching methods were small group presentations with group discussions, tutor-led discussions, and small group presentations. Individual presentations were the least preferred. Table 1 presents the average preference scores for different kinds of teaching methods.

Table 1: Average preference scores for different kinds of teaching methods in lectures and tutorials

| Teaching methods in lectures | Mean | Teaching methods in tutorials | Mean |
|---|---|---|---|
| Formal lecture | 2.50 | Mini lecture | 3.41 |
| Formal lecture with video | 3.35 | Tutor-led discussion | 3.72 |
| Formal lecture with question period | 2.96 | Student-led discussion | 3.25 |
| Formal lecture with discussion | 2.76 | Individual presentation | 2.31 |
| Formal lecture with video and questions | 3.29 | Individual presentation and group discussion | 3.02 |
| Formal lecture with video and discussion | 3.22 | Small group presentation | 3.39 |
| Formal lecture with video, questions and discussion | 3.16 | Small group presentation and group discussion | 3.37 |
| Participative lecture with group activities and feedback | 3.08 | Debate | 2.93 |
| | | Role play | 2.90 |

1 = least preferred
5 = most preferred

### *Language preferences for lectures and tutorials*

As presented in Table 2, for lectures, a combination of English and Cantonese was overwhelmingly preferred by 80% of full-time and 71% of part-time students. Similar preferences were shown for the combined use of the languages in tutorials. Among the small number of students expressing a preference for lectures in a single language, more part-timers (23%) than full-timers (16%) preferred lectures in English while more full-timers (21%) than part-timers (15%) preferred to use only Cantonese in tutorials.

Table 2: Student preferences in language used in lectures and tutorials

| | Lectures | | Tutorials | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Full-time | Part-time | Full-time | Part-time |
| English only | 16% | 23% | 0 | 2% |
| Cantonese only | 4% | 6% | 21% | 15% |
| Combination | 80% | 71% | 79% | 83% |

### *Preferences for class size for lectures and tutorials*

Over 70% of full-time students preferred to have lecture class sizes of 51 to 100. However, over 60% of part-time students preferred to have class sizes under 50. Very clear preferences were expressed on small tutorial group size. Both part-time students (over 80%) and the full-time students (over 90%) preferred to have between 7 and 12 students in a tutorial class.

### *Past experiences and preferences for teaching methods: Some implications for teaching*

The data was cross-tabulated to look for significant relationships between variables. It was found that there were no relationships between teaching method preferences and course mode, sex, age, mother tongue or class size. However, there were relationships between experiences and preferences.

For lectures, past experience in lectures with video and lectures with a question period appears to have a relationship with preference for a highly participative lecture. For tutorials, past experience in a certain type of activity seems to have a relationship with preference for the same or similar type of interactive behaviour. Figure 2 presents the influences of past experiences on preferences in tutorial interactivity. However, further studies are required to look into the relationship statistically in both lecture and tutorial situations.

The links between past experiences and preferences for teaching methods or learning activities suggest that to influence the preferences of students and to widen their range of preferences for interactive learning modes, it is necessary to introduce unfamiliar teaching methods in a systematic way and reinforce them. For example, if tutors wish to use role play, they can start with individual presentations. Through individual presentations, students would acquire the skills and confidence required to develop a preference for role play. In this way, students are more likely to develop a receptive attitude towards the new teaching methods.

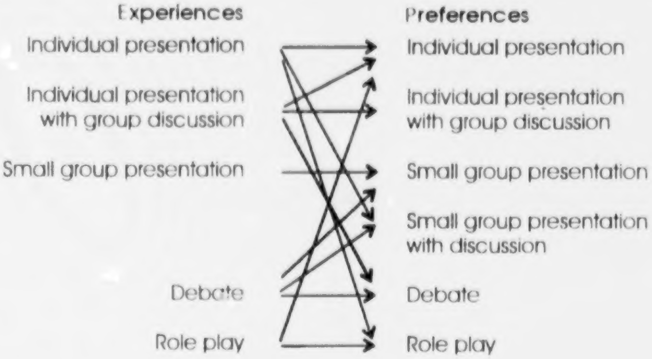

Figure 2: Influences of past experiences on preferences in tutorial interactivity

## Conclusion and Further Studies

The study reported in this paper was an exploratory study which investigated only one part of the interactive teacher-learner relationship. More questions have been raised than answered. In lectures, what is the reason for the high preference for the use of video? Does it merely provide relief from the lecturer or has it a more profound constructive learning function?

We see some difference in tutorial language preference and can only speculate that the part-timers may have gained more experience in using and listening to English in the course of their employment and may have therefore felt more comfortable with the language.

There were two major limitations in this study: Only year 1 students were used in the sample; no explanation was sought in the questionnaire for the methods preferred in lectures or tutorials. To yield more representative results, further studies which include students of all years of study should be carried out. Students' reasons for the most preferred teaching methods should also be investigated. The findings from such studies will be more useful in guiding the design of learning situations for business students.

Despite its limited scope and scale, the present research has shed light on three points about teaching and learning:

1. Students have a preference for group activities when learning in interactive situations. Though this entails additional tasks of preparing and coordinating the group's activities, it is far preferred to individual presentations in front of peers and the teacher. Students also have a preference for small group size.
2. There is a clear indication of student preferences for the combined use of Cantonese and English, though further investigation is needed as to how the languages may be effectively combined.
3. Teachers need to give more thought to the design of interactive learning situations if students are to embark on the active participative route to learning, which is one way to improve learning. The design of tutorial sessions, in particular, may be critical if our aim is to engender deep learning.

These points have to be considered when taking steps to put the student back in the teaching learning system where attention is given to their role as determining agents in the design and development of interactive teaching methods.

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# Some Key Concepts in School Mathematics – Ideas for Better Learning

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There are a number of key concepts in school mathematics. Some such concepts identified in this paper are the development of symbol sense, the manipulation of more than one variable, the concept of finite sequences, the making of shapes, and the comprehension of the third dimension. If students have difficulty in understanding these concepts, the difficulty will form conceptual barriers. The paper suggests ideas for helping students fare better in the acquisition of the concepts.

## 數學學習中之一些重要概念——協助學生克服困難的方法

學校數學中有一些學習之重要概念，一些人稱之為「盲點」。本文指出一些較顯著的例子，包括符號感、多變量處理、數列、形狀及第三維之認知等；並提出一些協助學生將此等盲點一一克服的方法，希望能避免更多學生中途停止學習。

Numerous measures have been tried out to help students learn mathematics more effectively. The Target Oriented Curriculum is one among those. At present, the learning targets of mathematics in different key stages are classified according to subject matter (Curriculum Development Council, 1994). However, there is a need to shift our attention from the training of skills and the comprehension of subject matter to the acquisition of concepts (Shumway, 1989). It is possible that students build up mathematics through a number of key concepts. Grasping these key concepts, they can progress from one stage of learning to the next. Conversely, students may just give up mathematics if they are frustrated by difficulty in understanding the concepts. The difficulty creates conceptual barriers which prevent further learning, even if students can imitate the teacher's methods in solving routine mathematical problems.

In what follows, I will discuss a number of these key concepts in school mathematics and suggest how we can help students with the acquisition of the concepts.

## Progressing from Arithmetic to Algebra

It is not uncommon that when asked to solve the following problem:

> Linda paid a total of $1310 for a vase and a book. The vase was sold at a 10% discount and the cost of the book was $500. What was the marked price of the vase?

Secondary One students give straightaway the answer below:

$(\$1310 - \$500) / (1 - 10\%) = \$900$

These students were unable to set up an unknown for solving equations at primary school; thus they tend to continue to solve such kind of problem by "reversing the procedure". To help them acquire the concept of the power of the unknown, we may think of convincing them with less straight forward examples like the one below:

> What is the marked price of a vase if one has to pay $1530 for two vases and if a 10% discount is offered for the first vase and a 20% discount is offered for the second?

The example shows that it is difficult (though still possible) to have the above solved just by "reversing the procedure".

By being convinced in this way, it is possible that students will find the meaning of doing a lot of manipulations involving the dry symbol $x$.

Students are often concerned about the usefulness of what they are told to learn. "Usefulness" may not be confined to the direct application of mathematical concepts in our daily lives. Showing the power of a tool in solving a bunch of mathematical problems (such as the sine and cosine rules used to solve triangles) and connecting this to what they have previously learned will satisfy students' questioning minds.

## Tackling Problems with More Than One Variable

Students need similar help when they move on to learn about the setting up of simultaneous equations with more than one unknown. In the following example, used typically in junior forms, students are taught to set only one unknown, $x$, for the length of the playground and let $110 - x$ be the width, thus limiting the number of unknowns to one.

> Find the length and width of a rectangular playground if its perimeter is 220 m and the area is 2400 $m^2$.

Students need to be shown that the solution would be more direct, if one were allowed to set two unknowns, $x$ and $y$, and use the system of simultaneous equations as follows:

$$2\,(x+y) = 220$$
$$xy = 2400$$

However, it is not necessary to prohibit the students' use of just one unknown. We can leave the more direct method as an alternative solution. Solving a single problem by different methods always provides opportunity for the students to penetrate deeper in the underlying patterns and concepts (Wong, 1993).

## Manipulating Symbols

Mathematics is often described as "the science of space and numbers" (e.g., Hornby, Gatenby, & Wakefield, 1963). As a matter of fact, most of the mathematical objects that students come across at an early age, such as numerals and polygons, are not exactly abstract. Symbols are possibly the first mathematical objects that are notably remote from everyday life. However, all symbols have a reason for their existence. For instance, most symbols such as $x$, $y$, $z$, met in school mathematics, represent numbers. We may try to arrive at some general rules by looking at a number of instances.

For example, after doing a lot of problems of the form

$$3\cdot(4+5) = 3\cdot4 + 3\cdot5$$

one begins to realize that

$$x\,(y+z) = xy + xz;$$

and with numerical examples of

$$67 = 3(22) + 1,$$

one will get the analog for polynomials

$$p(x) = r(x)\cdot q(x) + s(x), \qquad \text{deg}(s)\ \text{deg}\ r.$$

However, if students are not shown a clear picture of what they should be aiming at, they may find the analogy irrelevant and fail to see the real meaning of playing such symbol games.

$$\begin{array}{r} 22 \\ 3\overline{)\,67} \\ \underline{66} \\ 1 \end{array}$$

Another example is that students may understand perfectly well the analogy of $67 = 3(22) + 1$ (since they can check its validity by using a calculator!) but have difficulty in comprehending $p(x) = r(x)\cdot q(x) + s(x)$. In this case, teachers can consider moving away from checking the validity of the equalities and focusing more on the procedure of the division. Teachers can also consider using more complicated divisions, such as $657 = 12(54) + 9$, to illustrate this point.

$$\begin{array}{r} 54 \\ 12\overline{)\,657} \\ \underline{60\phantom{7}} \\ 57 \\ \underline{48} \\ 9 \end{array}$$

Comparing the procedures side by side is also beneficial. One such example is in the euclidean algorithm of polynomials.

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 2 | 80<br>72 | 36<br>32 | 4 |
| 2 | 8<br>8 | 4 | |
| | 0 | | |

(1) $80 = 2(36) + 8$
(2) $36 = 4(8) + 4$
(3) $8 = 2(4)$

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| $r_1$ | $p$<br>$r_1q$ | $q$<br>$r_2q_2$ | $r_2$ |
| $r_3$ | $q_2$<br>$r_3q_3$ | $q_3$<br>$r_4q_4$ | $r_4$ |
| $r_5$ | $q_4$<br>$r_5q_5$ | $q_5$<br>$r_6d$ | $r_6$ |
| | $d$ | $0$ | |

(1) $p = r_1q + q_2$
(2) $q = r_2q_2 + q_3$
(3) $q_2 = r_3q_3 + q_4$
(4) $q_3 = r_4q_4 + q_5$
(5) $q_4 = r_5q_5 + d$
(6) $q_5 = r_6d.$

Furthermore, these symbols not only represent one number, but can be substituted by a range of numbers. This is related to the concept of functions. It is possible that students cannot see the meaning of manipulating all the polynomials when this point is not effectively brought out. If all the tedious grouping and transposition of terms, such as expanding and factorization are drilled without a real understanding of their meaning, it is most probable that students will miss the point, lose interest in the subject and become mathematics-haters when they leave school.

## Comprehending Finite Sequences

Russell (1966) remarked that "The solution of the difficulties which formerly surrounded the mathematical infinite is probably the greatest achievement of which our age has to boast". Though the investigation of infinity can be dated back to the works of our far ancestors, such as *Gung Sun Long Zhi* ( 公孫龍子 ) in the East and *Zeno* in the West, we were unclear of this important concept until the turn of the twentieth century.

Judging from the long time its development took in history, the concept of infinity is not at all an easily reachable one. The investigation of finite sequences can be regarded as a stepping stone to the future study of infinity.

The notion of $a_n$ not only exhibits a general pattern, but can also be regarded as an application of the concept of functions. In fact, the sequence $a_n$ can be formally defined as a function from **N** to **R**. In the existing Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination (HKCEE) mathematics syllabus, the arithmetic and geometric sequences are taken as examples. However, if we over-emphasize the properties of these two specific sequences, in particular, their n-th term and summation formulas, we may overlook the building up of the notion of finite sequences. If students are only asked to solve problems by substituting formulas with numbers, they may find such practices meaningless and irrelevant.

## Making Shapes

Though traditional geometry was sizably cut during the "modern mathematics" reform, mathematics educators have been thinking of retrieving more into the syllabuses in recent years. This can be reflected in the changes in the HKCEE mathematics syllabus in 1993, according to which candidates' ability to present proofs is expected" (Hong Kong Examinations Authority, 1993, Appendix E). Mathematical reasoning is one major aspect of learning that geometry can facilitate. However, there is something more than that.

The appreciation of the aesthetic value of mathematics is added as a subject target for mathematics in the finalized learning targets of mathematics (Curriculum Development Council, 1994). Symmetry and regularity found in geometric shapes show numerous patterns which can help students appreciate the beauty of mathematics. Furthermore, shapes and patterns are often expressed in architecture and found in nature. Observing the geometry in our world will enhance our abilities not only in spatial visualization, but also in appreciating the beauty of mathematical shapes.

Geometric shapes shown to students are often static, whether it is a fixed triangle, a fixed quadrilateral or a fixed circle. Teachers can consider using informal treatments of transformations such as translation, reflection, rotation and enlargement, through which figures are turned to other shapes.

While curve stitching has already been suggested as activities in the primary mathematics curriculum (Curriculun Development Committee, 1983, Topic 6.8), exercises in paper folding, symmetric ink plot, harmonographs and the creation of visual art of patterns offer additional activities in this aspect of learning (Wong, 1992). Such exercises should form interesting activities of the mathematics club.

## Launching the Third Dimension

Another interesting activity for the mathematics club is the making of polyhedra through paper folding. In fact, though the enhancement of spatial ability is one of the primary goals of mathematics education, three-dimensional objects are not treated formally until Secondary Four, when they are introduced all of a sudden. Preliminary treatments through making polyhedra are recommended by the Curriculum Development Committee as activities at the Primary level (1983, Topic 4.9), and students learn about the volumes and surface areas of prisms, pyramids, cylinders, cones and spheres in Secondary Two and Secondary Three. It should help in the development of spatial abilities if the students have more chances to "play around" with three-dimensional shapes. A number of three-dimensional games were introduced in an earlier paper by the author (Wong, 1990).

## Drawing Graphs

The sketching of graphs is often useful in helping students to understand functions and is quite necessary in determining the range of integration when one is asked to evaluate the area of the loop of, say, $r^2 = \cos\theta$.

Drawing conclusions from graphs, including graphical solutions to equations, is an indispensable topic, though many do not perceive graphical solutions as "exact". However, examples with equations like $x^2 + 5x - 7 = 0$ may not show the need of using graphical methods since the algebraic method is only a one-step solution. Further treatment of equations like $x^3 + 5x^2, - 7 = 0$ and $x = 5 \bullet \sin x$ may show the power of graphical solutions better.

## Concluding Remarks

Difficulty in mastering key concepts in school mathematics create barriers to future learning. This paper has suggested that teachers can help students learn better by showing them the relevance of what is learned and helping them in the acquisition of key concepts. This could prevent students from giving up the learning of mathematics.

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# Developing Skills for Integrated Use of Language through Task Instructions

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This paper discusses how the development of students' integrated language skills can be achieved through making use of task instructions as students are simultaneously guided in task interpretation. The paper begins by analysing the particular requirement of the new HKCEE English Language Paper III, which calls for a mastery of skills for integrated language use. This is followed by suggestions of how the skills of reading, listening, speaking and writing can be enhanced through the exploitation of task instructions. An added dimension of learner independence is also suggested for more advanced learning.

**從課業指令培養學生綜合語文能力**

本文嘗試探討如何在訓練學生分析及理解課業要求（task requirements）的過程中，同時利用課業指令（task instructions）作爲發展中學生綜合語文運用技巧的方法，收一舉兩得之效。全文主要討論以下三點：

（一）1996中學會考英文科卷三對綜合語文運用的要求。

（二）利用課業指令以提高學生在會話、閱讀、聆聽及書寫能力的方法。

（三）更重要的是教學方法上的突破，透過學生經理解和分析教師提供的檔案資料（data files）後所進行的課業指令設計活動，提高學生的自學能力。

## Introduction

In communication, language is often, if not always, used in both the spoken and written modes simultaneously. However, in the language classroom, there has not been much emphasis on such integrated use of language, except at the matriculation level, where students must practise integrated reading and writing for the Use of English examination.

The scenario is changing with the proposed development in the Hong Kong Certificate of Education Examination (HKCEE) Engish Language papers. From 1996 onwards, Paper III will require candidates to demonstrate their ability to use language in an integrated manner. In the words of the syllabus writers, "the proposed changes aim to modernise and improve the examination syllabus as well as to incorporate some TTRA principles[1] by adopting an integrated approach and by being more task-based" (Hong Kong Examinations Authority (HKEA), 1992, Appendix C). Predictably, there will be much greater concern about how the development of language skills can be best achieved through an integrated approach at an ealier stage of learning, i.e., in S.4 and S.5.

This paper focuses on task instructions and discusses how they can be used to develop language skills in an integrated manner. In the discussion, I will refer to my own classroom experience, which is a continuous process of experimentation guided by established principles of foreign language teaching. I will include a few teaching ideas to illustrate how skill development can be incorporated into task interpretation.

## Tasks Which Require the Integrated Use of Language

The new HKCEE English Language Paper III requires students to perform both short and extended tasks. For short tasks, students will have to select from and make use of information that they hear and / or read in order to carry out the work. These short tasks may involve students in reading and looking for specific information while listening to some description on a tape. The task types may include form-completion, taking down telephone messages, writing notes and so on.

The second part of the new paper consists of extended tasks. Students will be required to process, select and combine information from both spoken and written sources. Then they will have to complete various writing tasks using the information. Successful task completion will depend on how well the students can organize the materials and present them in a way that serves the stated purpose and is appropriate in the task context.

Since they are drawn from real life situations, most of the types of task described above have demands similar to those of real life tasks. This means that when students are engaged in searching for and using information, it is a search for meaning and a communication of meaning. As in real life, the use of English in Paper III will be assessed "in terms of the extent to which it supports or interferes with successful communication" (Hong Kong Examinations Authority, 1994, Appendix C).

The use of task materials is not confined to testing. When similar materials are used in the classroom, however, a *teaching approach* must be used. Oral communication, for example, can and should feature significantly in the classroom, despite its removal in Paper III as a result of examination constraints. Guidance in various forms also can and should be provided in the different stages of task completion. It is based on this understanding that making use of task instructions is proposed as a means of developing skills for integrated use of language.

## Making Use of Task Instructions

### *Killing two birds with one stone*

As students need to process information about a task and make decisions before they can start work on it, one of the English teachers' primary concerns is how students can be helped to interpret the task instructions accurately. In this paper, "task instructions" refer to all information except that contained in the data file(s). Students must listen to these instructions, rapidly scan over the written texts and assess the information before they can perform the task.

In this section, I will discuss how teachers can kill two birds with one stone by developing students' skills for task interpretation while promoting the integrated use of language — a useful combination that tends to be underused. For teachers working under the constraints of the syllabus and the limitation of course book materials, making use of task instructions is an advantage because they provide an immediate resource. It must be clarified, however, that helping students with task instructions aims at enabling them to interpret the task in its context, which is different from helping them in dealing with the whole task.

I will include a number of practical teaching ideas to illustrate the points that I am making. A set of task instructions from an HKCEE sample paper for English Language (Syllabus B) will be used in the illustrations (commercially produced materials are not used for the sake of neutrality), but this should not be taken to suggest any confusion between teaching and testing. It is the *task* rather than the *test* that is used for illustration purposes.

### *Sample task instructions used in the illustrations*

All illustrations in this paper are based on the following set of task instructions extracted from p.77 and p.95 of HKCEE Sample Papers (HKEA, 1992):

*Situation*

Your name is James Wong. Your boss is English. Her name is Ms Jean Jenkins. You are a journalist for the Hong Kong Times, a local newspaper. You write for the schools section. Recently, your newspaper has been concentrating on the topic of crime prevention.

You come in to work one morning and find that your boss Jean has left some instructions and a Data File for you on your desk. Now you will have ten minutes to look at the Question-answer book and the Data File.

After this ten minutes you will hear the telephone ring and you will hear a tape. While you listen to the tape you should make notes on the note sheet provided in your Question-answer book on page 5. These notes will not be marked.

Task 1

Using information from the article from the London Daily News together with the information you hear on the tape, write a detailed story for your newspaper about the Hong Kong girl who was robbed. You should use about 150 words.

Task 2

Make a list of tips for a safe holiday as requested by Ms Jenkins. Use information from Inspector Choi's letter and from the tape.

Task 3

Write a letter in reply to Inspector Choi's letter. The instructions are on the tape so you must make notes. Remember to mention the Hong Kong Times Anti-crime Festival. You should use about (60 words.)

(Extracted from HKCEE Sample Papers, English Language(Syllabuses A & B) 1996, p.77)

*Tapescript*

Announcer: Part B

Find the Question-answer book and the Data File for Part B. Find page 1 of the Question-answer book for Paper III, Part B.

Situation: Your name is James Wong. Your boss is English. Her name is Ms Jean Jenkins. You are a journalist and you work for the Hong Kong Times, a local newspaper. You write for the schools section. Recently, your newspaper has been concentrating on the topic of crime prevention.

You come in to work one morning and find that your boss Jean has left some instructions and a Data File for you on your desk. Now you will have ten minutes to look at the Question-answer Book and the Data File.

(Pause for 10 minutes)

Now listen to the tape and make notes on the note sheet provided in your Question-answer Book on p.5. These notes will not be marked.

> (Extracted from HKCEE Sample Papers, English Language (Syllabuses A & B), 1996, p.95)

Note that the information about the situation in the written and spoken versions is identical except for one very minor difference.

### *Descriptive and instructional language*

A disinction that students must acquire is that between the descriptive and the instructional uses of language. If students cannot see the functional differences between "You are a reporter and you work for Hong Kong Daily" and "Write a news story about ... Use about 150 words", chances are that they will fail to see the links between the different pieces of information, which may lead to misinterpretation. Although after completing S.3, students can be assumed to have acquired a basic knowledge of English, most would still need help in learning to use this knowledge for communication purposes. The following worksheet is designed to help students detect the functional differences between the different linguistic forms of the verb:

Worksheet 1

1. Listen to the information about the task. Make two lists of verbs. Write on the first list all the verbs that descibe a role or a situation. Write on the second list all the verbs that give instructions.

2. Compare your lists with a classmate's. Put a mark next to those of your answers which are different from your classmate's. Find out which are correct when you do 3.

3. Read the information about the task. Underline all the verbs in sentences which describe a role or a situation. Circle all the verbs in sentences which gives you instructions.

The worksheet can be modified to suit the level of the students. For example, it is possible to use only Step 1 or 3, or Steps 3 and 2 in the reverse order. Another variation is for the teacher to dictate the information instead of using the written or taped instructions. In addition to the above, students can be asked at a later stage to identify the advisory use of model verbs as in "You should use ..." and "You may use ...".

### *Background knowledge*

*1. Extracting crucial information about the task context*

Correct task interpretation calls for the use of relevant knowledge of the world. When students start to work out their role and the task context, they will draw on their prior knowledge and past experiences. If the necessary knowledge is available in the students, the teacher's job is one of activating it by guiding students to use the linguistic clues in the task information, as in Worksheet 2 below:

Worksheet 2

Read / Listen to the information about the situation and answer the following questions:

1. What is your job?

2. What type of company do you work for?

3. What is your current assignment about?

4. Who are you in the given situation?

5. Who is your boss?

This worksheet can be completed in a number of ways. It can be done by individuals, followed by peer comparison of answers. It can also be done in pairs with one student interviewing the other.

The teacher may consider explaining the functions of the questions to the students if they are not already aware that questions 1 - 3 are of primary importance because without knowing one's role and the work context, it is almost impossible to do any job properly. Although questions 4 - 5 are about names and are of secondary importance, familiarity with the names is needed because they will be referred to throughout the set of task information.

### *2. Extending students' knowledge of roles and work contexts*

If students do not have the background knowledge to understand how their role and the task context govern the way they should deal with the task, then the teacher should consider a long term solution apart from using Worksheet 2 with them. A long term solution means extending students' knowledge of roles and work contexts, helping them to build up an adequate background knowledge on such topics as features of different careers, basic transactions in the world of business, the operation of the public services, community members' rights and duties. Worksheet 3 below is an example of an extension activity based on the task context of the sample materials.

Worksheet 3

Discuss with a classmate. Together write as many answers as you can to the following questions:

1. What do journalists do outside their office?

2. What do journalists do in their office?

3. Write down the names of as many departments / sections in a newspaper company as you can.

4. What might a journalist be asked to do by his/her boss?

5. How might a boss assign work to a journalist?

### ***Organizing task information***

Because of the complexity with which the task instructions are usually given, it is useful to ask students to organize the information in a way that helps to clarify things for themselves. Worksheet 4, which gets students to relate information sources to the tasks, is one way of helping them develop this strategy.

Worksheet 4

| | Task assigned | Supporting information |
|---|---|---|
| Example<br>Task 1 | Write a detailed story about a Hong Kong girl who was robbed. | 1. Article from London Daily News<br>2. Information from the tape |
| Task 2 | | |
| Task 3 | | |

### ***Predicting***

Before students read the Data File or listen further to the tape, they can be engaged in predicting the kind of information that they might obtain. Asking students to make predictions is an effective way of warming them up for a task. On Worksheet 5, there are two examples of prediction activities.

Worksheet 5

1. According to the task information, you will hear the telephone ring and you will hear a tape.

Consider the following possible callers:

Jean Jenkins
the Hong Kong girl who was robbed
Inspector Choi

Who do you think will telephone you? What might the person be telephoning about?

2. According to the task instructions, one of your assignments is to use an article from the London Daily News as one of the two sources of information and write a detailed news story about the Hong Kong girl who was robbed. What kinds of information do you expect to find in this article?

This kind of worksheet is likely to stimulate a great deal of discussion, for the questions are specific and not totally unfamiliar while calling for imagination. The discussion is best conducted between pairs or small groups of three or four students. For a weak class, it would be useful to give more guidance in the form of WH-questions, e.g.,

Who was robbed?
Where was she robbed?
When was she robbed?
What did she lose?
How was she robbed?
What happened after she was robbed?

Prediction activities are ideal for pair work. Students can exchange ideas as they work or after they have done their work individually.

### *Taking up a role and making up a task*

A totally different way of raising students' awareness of roles and task contexts is to ask them to play a role and to assign a task to a colleague, using the description of a work context, together with information from a data file and a data tape. This kind of activity helps the students to make use of their background knowledge and work out for themselves any tasks that are significant to a journalist of a local newspaper, writing for the schools section on the topic of crime prevention.

As an alternative to this, at a more advanced stage, students can be left with a data file and a data tape without any indication of role or task context. Again, they can be asked to make up tasks and to produce the description of a work situation together with a set of task instructions. This is a very important experience to students because they are involved in working out the meaning for the task. The advantages of students taking up a role and making up tasks are that extensive integrated language use and the development of learner independence are encouraged.

## Conclusion

In this paper, I have suggested how task instructions can be used as a resource and that integrated language practice can be combined with the development of students' skills and strategies in task interpretation. I have also illustrated with practical teaching ideas how the two targets can be achieved simultaneously. It is high time that teachers recognized the integrated use of language in real life communication situations. Students would benefit from a lot of opportunities for such use of language in the English lessons.

## Note

[1] According to the first three of the eight principles of cognitive learning and use in English listed in Learning Targets for English (Primary 1 to Secondary 5)(Curriculum Development Council, 1992, pp.11-12), learning and using English is most effective when learners:

1. use English purposefully in a range of holistic tasks in which they discover and impose meaning through conceptualizing, inquiring, problem-solving and reasoning in interactions with people and texts
2. engage in English use through tasks which are appropriate to the stage of cognitive and language development of learners and which stimulate and reflect their interest
3. focus on forms, processes and strategies as and when appropriate in the context of purposeful use of English in tasks.

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# Managing Tutors in Distance Education in Hong Kong

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An accredited institution offering courses and programmes through the distance learning mode should offer a full range of support services to its learners. The quality of such services rests with the integrity, dedication and motivational skills of the tutors who play an important role in helping the learners progress in their studies. Resoonsible and conscientious tutors will not only help learners overcome their problems in learning, they can also instil a lot of motivation to the learners who may otherwise feel frustrated learning on their own. There are distinct areas where tutors' performance can be monitored in order to achieve quality assurance. Effective monitoring can also be seen as a means of staff development.

### 香港遙距教育導師的監察

一間認可的遙距教育學院不單舉辦各項課程，同時也為學員提供全面的學習支援服務。遙距教育過程的工作有賴導師的公正、盡責和激勵技巧。導師在學員的學習的過程中，擔任一個重要的角色，除了協助學員解決學習上的困難，更發揮激勵的作用，以消除學員在遙距學習中的孤單感。遙距教育導師的監察是可以在一些特別的工作項目中進行的。有效的監察亦可視為導師的在職培訓。

## Introduction

The focus of this paper is on the needs of open learners, qualities of tutors and ways to monitor tutors' performance. These issues are considered to be of paramount importance in tutor management in distance education.

While this paper refers to views of some world leading authors (e.g. Race and Thorpe) on distance education, it includes examples of local practices so that readers can have a better understanding of the distance education scene, particularly in the area of monitoring the performance of tutors, in Hong Kong.

## Why Do Distance Learners Need Tutoring?

In any learning situation, there are learners with different learning styles. In distance education, there are obviously some learners who do not need (and may not want) the help of tutors and they simply carry on their studies solely by themselves. On the other hand, there are learners who need some form of assistance from their tutors. The provision of tutors in distance education, as suggested by Thorpe (1988), is to cater for the majority of learners who require help from tutors on such matters as study and examination skills, advice on completion of assignments or projects and feedback on their performance and progress in the study programme.

Cole, Coats and Lentell (1987) explained that the provision of support and assistance from tutors by way of counselling and advice serves as effective means of encouragement and motivation to the learners. Learners are most pleased to see that they have successfully completed a stage of learning or the entire programme, the evidence of which can be demonstrated by their passing certain test or assessment. As Miers (1986) remarked, the payoff for the learner's time and effort was the acquired knowledge or skill.

## The Motivation of Distance Learners

Distance learners, particularly the new ones who have not experienced the satisfaction and frustration of taking up a distance learning programme, often start such programme with mixed feelings of excitement and uncertainty, as described by Feasley (1988). They may feel very excited, showing extreme eagerness to get started the soonest possible. The excitement is even greater after they have flipped over some of the pages of the study materials and they feel so confident that they think they can master the programme with ease and within a relatively short time. This excited feeling towards new study materials is inherent among many distance learners.

Some learners, however, may become slightly dubious about the distance learning process. They may even demon-strate a certain amount of fear that they are unable to complete the programme on their own, without the presence of conventional teachers or lecturers. They may also have doubt about their ability in completing the programme within the time scale. Others may show signs of pessimism about the effectiveness of such mode of education.

Some distance learners embark on a distance learning programme as a means of testing their intellectual ability without the help of teachers or lecturers.

They wish to demonstrate to others that they can overcome boredom and frustration by studying on their own.

As they go further into their studies and as the study materials become harder, some learners begin to realize that they do not have sufficient time to devote to their studies. They may gradually feel very frustrated and they even want to give up their studies. They begin to regret having sacrificed their time and effort without getting any fruitful return. This partially explains why some learners disappear without completing their studies.

There are also those persevering and conscientious learners who can brave the storm of personal, family and social problems and complete their studies satisfactorily. They wish to prove not only to themselves but to their friends and associates that they are capable of acquiring additional knowledge and skill by managing their time well in carrying on further studies by themselves.

Learners enrol on a distance learning programme for a number of reasons and due to various motivational factors. As in all learning situations, only those who are serious and determined to do well in their studies are likely to succeed.

## How Can a Good Tutor Help Distance Learners?

Tutors play an important role in motivating the learners as well as assisting them to succeed in their studies. Comparing a good tutor with a poor tutor, Lewis (1984) concluded that, despite the poor quality of some study materials, a good tutor would make a world of difference in bringing distance learning to life. On the other hand, a poor tutor could cause a lot of damage to the learning process and turn away even those dedicated and serious learners.

In addition to the good qualities expected of an effective tutor, as suggested by Race (1989), a good tutor should be able to assist the learners in the following manner:

1. Try to understand the inert feelings of the learners and the problems faced by them. Be a good listener to their problems, help solve their individual problems and guide them in using their effort wisely.
2. Offer them whatever help that is required. Encourage them, whenever possible, to ask for help so that they do not feel they are studying in isolation. If circumstances permit, ask them to form small study groups, and arrange to meet and help each other in their studies.
3. Advise them on study skills and techniques, time management and setting priorities in their social and personal commitments.
4. Explain to them that the role of the tutor is to help them and not to assess or grade their intellectual ability. Obviously, in every learning situation, there are fast and slow learners. Encourage the fast ones to move ahead while at the same time giving as much assistance as possible to the slow ones, helping them to understand that having mastered one stage of their studies will bring them a lot of satisfaction and personal pride.
5. Build their confidence in their studies by assuring them that the tutor is only a telephone call away and help can be obtained either over the telephone or during tutorials.
6. Give constructive, fair, positive and motivating feedback on learners' performance. This is particularly important when giving written comments on the Tutor-Marked Assignments (TMAs). When The TMAs are returned to the learners through the post, they will know their strengths and weaknesses. Learners can tell, from the tutor's written remarks, the hidden messages such as whether the tutor is friendly or otherwise. Such remarks can either bring a lot of encouragement or total loss of self-esteem to the learners.
7. Prepare sufficiently for face-to-face tutorials. The emphasis of the tutorials should be on the process of learning rather than the mere content of what is to be learnt. Involve all participants and ask them to take part in discussions. Tutors should not fall into the trap of delivering lectures at tutorials.

## Monitoring and Managing tutors

Having identified the crucial role of tutors in the learning process of the distance learners, the performance of the tutors have to be closely monitored. In Hong Kong, as in the case of the Open Learning Institute of Hong Kong (OLI), the monitoring role rests with the individual course coordinators who follow the institutional guidelines. All of the tutors are part-timers and most of them have other full-time commitments. All new tutors have to be trained by the OLI. They are employed to offer telephone tutoring, conduct tutorials and mark assignments for the learners. As they form an important linkage between the OLI and the learners, their performance has to be constantly monitored to ensure that the expected quality service is being offered. There are various ways to monitor the tutors and these can be briefly described as follows:

1. The speed of turnaround time in tutor marking, the quality of their marking, and the comments they give on the written assignments are a clear indication of the effort of the tutors.

2. The numbers attending tutorials reflect how well the tutors have been accepted by the learners. Those responsible for monitoring the tutors visit such tutorials on a regular basis in order to obtain feedback from the learners on the tutors and, whenever possible, to personally assess the quality of the tutorials by sitting alongside the learners.

3. The number of assignments submitted and the examination results serve as an indicator of the progress of the learners and the amount of assistance given to them by the tutors.

4. The learner dropout rates of certain tutors show the extent of encouragement given to the learners by the tutors. If tutors are in constant touch with the learners, the dropout rates can be minimised.

Thorpe (1988) indicated that monitoring was not only a quality control mechanism but it also served to organise immediate responses to problems requiring remedial action. This explains that monitoring is a process of standardization and feedback on the performance of the tutors.

Hong Kong tutors are usually provided with the necessary support services, such as provision of stationery, preparation of visual materials, additional handouts and information to learners. They are also provided with a full set of the study materials, text books and marking guides for the TMAs. Additionally, tutors are provided with specimen letters to learners, standard forms to keep records of personal details and progress of learners, attendance at tutorials, and TMA records.

Tutors, like the learners, need to be motivated. They need to sustain their interest in being effective and efficient tutors. The stamina and enthusiasm of the tutors may drop due to a number of factors, such as the wide variation in standards, intellectual ability, age and learning motives of the learners, high attrition rates in both attendance at tutorials and submission of TMAs and unreasonable expectations of the learners due to their misinterpretation of the proper role of tutors. To avoid the build-up of tutors' frustration, periodic contacts with the tutors, either by phone or other means of communication, and visits to tutorials will allow them to vent their air of dissatisfaction and problems associated with their encounter with the learners. Regular meetings with the tutors serve as useful means of providing answers to their queries. Such occasions can also be used to motivate the tutors and to sustain their high level of interest in providing help and support to the learners.

Another motivating factor is to explain clearly to the tutors methods of paying for their services. Hong Kong tutors are paid for their attendance at tutor training workshops, meetings, conducting tutorials and marking scripts. On satisfactory completion of a course, they are paid a course fee. A delay in making payment to the tutors or any misunderstanding of the conditions of payment can also be a demotivating factor to the tutors.

## Monitoring as a Means of Staff Development

Cole, Coats and Lentell (1987) interpreted monitoring as a part of the standardization (quality control of tutors) procedure and for performance improvement as a means of staff development. Proper monitoring is indeed a good device to further develop the skills of the tutors. To achieve this, monitoring comments should be positive, constructive and supportive. This includes linking comments to tuition skills and not simply to academic content; commending and reinforcing the strengths of the tutors' methods of conducting the tutorials; giving positive guidance; explaining and clarifying evaluative comments; making reasonable and realistic demands that are likely to lead to improvement and generally showing respect for the tutors' professional skills, judgement and knowledge.

Race (1989) suggested that being personally involved in open learning would be a good way to enhance personal development in academic staff or trainers in industry and commerce. These people can be involved as learners, and in developing learning materials, tutoring open learners and managing them. They can also compare and contrast good and bad open learning materials, systems and support given to the learners. They will realize that good open learning materials are developed in a user-friendly style with clear and unambiguous objectives and aims, requiring the learners to actively participate, and the provision of useful feedback on the learners' progress. They will also acquire the skill of communicating with learners at a distance, dealing with their individual problems and needs. The acquired skill will be of immense help particularly to those who are used to conventional teaching or learning modes.

## Conclusion

In common with any form of education, distance education aims to enable learners to progressively learn and successfully complete a course. By the very nature of distance education, learners are often expected to learn on their own. To help them in their studies, learner support services, particularly in the provision of tutors, will be provided to the learners. The role of the tutors is to provide personal interaction with the learners, by way of offering telephone tutoring service, conducting tutorials and marking assignments. In order to ensure quality service which is being provided to the learners, there is a need to constantly monitor the performance of the tutors. They have to be reminded of their important role for the successful completion of the studies embarked on by distance learners.

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# Organizing an English Course for Teachers in China: The 1994 Pilot

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This paper reports on an experience of organizing and conducting a four-week English summer course for English language teachers in China, which the author hopes will stimulate interested colleagues to run non-profit making language projects in China to help English teachers there to develop both their language competence and their language teaching skills.

**94武漢中學英語教師培訓課程 —— 一個試辦課程的報告**

本文是一個教師培訓課程的經驗分享報告。該課程是應位香港及海外教師暨澳門天主教福利會及武漢市教育委員會之邀請，為武漢市中學英語教師策劃及推行的。課程為期四週，在一九九四年夏天舉行。文中內容主要包括整個培訓計劃自始至終的發展過程，其中遇到的困難以及參與者對這項計劃的反省和建議。作者希望藉此分享報告激發有志趣的教育工作者為大陸英語教師舉辦更多的活動，以提高其語文水平及教學質素。

## Introduction

Teaching and learning go hand in hand. It was in this spirit that the English summer course reported in this paper was organized and conducted. In the paper, I will give an account of the project, which I hope will stimulate interest in organizing more projects that will enhance professional development of teachers in both Hong Kong and China.

## Background

The English summer course was jointly sponsored and organized by the Catholic Social Services of Macau and the Wuhan Educational Committee. I undertook the organizational work at the invitation of the project director in Macau. The course was designed for the local English language school teachers of Wuhan. From initial planning in December 1993 to actual implementation in July-August 1994, the pilot project took eight months.

## Project Planning and Development

### *Needs analysis*

The normal procedure for course design was followed. The planning began in December 1993 with a needs analysis for which I paid my first visit to Wuhan. Within the constraint of 48 hours, I visited two institutions (which was as many as could be scheduled) - one secondary school and one teachers' training college. Most information was gathered from general observations (e.g., what language teaching facilities were available), from class observations in English lessons, and from interviews with English teachers. The questions that I raised at the interviews were mainly about the current English language teaching situation in Wuhan and difficulties encountered in teaching. The main findings from these visits are summarized as follows:

- Classes were very large, with 60+ students in each.
- The English competence of learners and users was generally low, particularly in listening and speaking.
- Teaching methods were monotonous. For example, a lesson might just be a series of controlled oral practices.
- There was a general lack of teaching materials.
- Both institutions had language laboratories that could be more fully utilized.

This information enabled us to identify the target course participants' needs and to work out the contents of the course.

### *Course aim and rationale*

When we were invited to organize the course, we understood the broad aim to be the improvement of both the English competence and the teaching skills of the participants. Our needs analysis revealed that participants would benefit from intensive training in communicative skills and from an introduction to a range of basic techniques for teaching the four language skills. Opportunities for communicative use of language would have to be built into the course, but to enable participants to use these opportunities, the course would have to emphasize the link between language forms and their functional use.

### *Logistical and administrative matters*

In this collaborative project, our role was to design the course and teach it. The administrative and management matters were looked after by our co-organizer, the Wuhan Educational Committee. Consultative meetings were held to sort out logistical and administrative details such as the course dates and venue. It was decided that the course would last for four weeks from mid-July to mid-August of 1994. The number of teaching days per week would be five with four hours of work each day.

The selection criteria and enrolment limit were set by the teaching team. Since the course was by nature a refresher course, the target participants were defined as English teachers who had some years of language teaching experience in secondary schools. The participants would also need to have a sufficiently good command of English. This English requirement was necessary because the whole course would be conducted through English as the medium of communication. We requested the Wuhan Educational Committee to adhere to these criteria because we could foresee that the number of interested teachers would be large. The enrolment limit set by the teaching team was 40.

## Problems and Solutions

### *Recruitment of teachers*

The recruitment of the teaching team was one of the initial problems to be tackled on our part. Though we were not short of zealous teachers who were more than willing to join the team, not everyone could remain in Wuhan throughout the four weeks. The most they could avail themselves was two weeks. The teaching schedule was therefore arranged in such a way as to fit in with the course tutors' availability. Adopting this strategy, I was able to recruit a team of five teachers committing themselves to the teaching. Three of them were from Hong Kong, one was from the United States, and one from Singapore.

### *Over-enrolment*

The admission procedure began soon after the Chinese New Year holidays, when teachers returned to their schools. It was done through the recommendations of the heads of individual schools. The problem of over-enrolment was predictable, since there was a good number of secondary schools in Wuhan. The strategy we used was that each school could only nominate one teacher who would have to pass an English language proficiency test (which was a 1½ hour general English test originally used in Hong kong) before admission to the course. Still, the number of eligible teachers exceeded the limit. Therefore, an additional selection criterion was used: Priority was given to those with more years of language teaching experiences. In the end, only about ten applications were deferred.

### *Course design*

It had been planned that the course should cover three areas: the use of English, language teaching methodology and language activities. In selecting language forms for focused study, one great challange I faced was that of identifying the level of difficulty and sophistication. It was decided that the final list should be a combination of some basic but problematic grammar topics (such as tenses, prepositions and phrasal verbs, agreement) and a number of more complex constructions with conjunctions, discourse markers, participles, conditionals and adjective and adverbial phrases (See Appendix 1).

In the area of methodology, the crucial decision was the choice between depth (i.e., a thorough exploration of a smaller range of skills and techniques) and breadth (i.e., a general exposure to a wider range of methods .It was finally decided the latter would be more beneficial for experienced teachers because it would help stimulate innovative teaching ideas. As shown in Appendix 1, the methodology sessions cover eighteen different topics rather than focusing on a few.

For the language activities, it was decided that the sole criterion should be maximum free use of English. Any activity for groups which would stimulate language output from the participants would be suitable.

Throughout the design stage, the course benefited from the regular professional advice and assistance of a very experienced and resourceful English teacher, who was also interested in course materials design. This support proved to be indispensible.

Apart from consulting professional expertise external to the teaching team, it was also necessary to plan the use of the expertise of the course tutors in the most effective and efficient manner. The two course tutors who specialized in TESL were therefore given the main responsibility of lecturing to the whole group in the methodology sessions. The other course tutors would take turns to lead the language activities. In the use of English sessions in which participants worked in two or three recurrent groups (designed to maximize interaction and to make the most of division of labour), the course tutors would rotate and do similar things with different groups of participants.

### *Course materials*

To prepare materials for forty sessions of work, let alone twenty activity sessions, was a colossal task. Our strategy was to select suitable materials from grammar books and senior secondary English course books used in Hong Kong (sets of which were transported to Wuhan). The book materials were supplemented by notes, handouts and worksheets prepared by the teaching team. The selection of materials and preparation of additonal materials were based on the course plan (Appendix 1).

## The Implementation

The course commenced as planned on July 18, 1994, after the opening ceremony by the vice-director of the Wuhan Educational Committee. The course tutors and the participants were immediately engaged in an ice-breaking, socializing activity incorporated into the first lesson to give the participants a flavour of the emphasis on communication. This was immediately followed by an introduction to the language teaching principles and skills component of the course.

On the whole, the implementation was smooth. The course plan was generally adhered to. The strategies that we adopted proved to be useful. For example, the recurrent use of English sessions did promote greater interaction as the participants worked in small groups. It also helped in reducing exhaustion of man-power because the tutors could specialize in only certain parts of the course content.

The activity sessions in the afternoon were run with equal success. As reported by the participants, the variety of activities did not only stimulate interest in learning but also inspired innovative ideas for teaching. The variety marked the creativity of the members of the course tutors, who had indeed given a lot of thoughts to bringing fun and interest into the language classroom. Some of the activity sessions were linked with the methodology component in such a way that the participants were required to work in small groups to plan and teach their lessons to the other groups so that all participants could observe one another's lessons and comment on the performance.

The course also included two special sessions. One was a session devoted to the topic of the management of an English department. This was scheduled in to help participants explore more effective ways of coordinating the English department so that English could be taught more efficiently in a school. The other special session which came at the end of the course was a display of teaching materials which was intended to give participants a broader idea of materials currently used outside China and to enable them to adapt what would be appropriate for their own students. After the course, the materials were distributed among the participants so that each had some to take back to their school and use as resources and references.

One other very important factor that contributed to the success of the course was the participant factor. There was a wide range of language abilities among the thirty-five teachers who participated in the course (for one reason or another, five teachers were unable to attend the course). It was obvious that except a few outstanding ones who were able to listen well and were therefore responsive, the participants did not have adequate skills for face-to-face communication in English. However, all of them were highly motivated and very serious about making full use of the course. They felt that since it was an honour and a privilege to be admitted to the course, they should not allow themselves to waste any opportunity to learn from the teachers outside China.

## Feedback and Evaluation

A formal course evaluation by means of questionnaire was conducted at the end of the course. The questionnaires have been sent to Macau for data-processing. Since the results are not yet available, they cannot be included in this paper. However, feedback was also collected from the participants in casual conversations throughout the course, and at the closing ceremony, where the participants each gave their view on the course. This will be presented in this section.

The feedback received from the participants was encouraging. Two significant gains were reported by the participants. First, they had not only acquired knowledge and skills in language learning / teaching, but also got hold of a key with which to explore and open up other doors to language learning / teaching. Second, they learnt that communication is part of the learning process: As we communicate, we make our formally learnt language more automatically available, and as we are making an effort to communicate, we develop strategies of communication which help us in further learning.

For us, the organizers and teachers, it was rewarding to know that the thoughts and efforts we had put into the course were genuinely appreciated. On top of this, we also received from the participants warmth and friendliness in return for what we did. Both the participants and the officials invited us to return in the coming year to run a similar course for other participants and a follow-up workshop for the first batch of participants. Our very first endeavour that started with the intention to share language teaching and learning experiences turned out to be more than a one-off event.

In our own evaluation, we concluded that running the course was a very worthwhile experience. To return to our theme of teaching and learning, the English summer course was not exactly a case of "we taught and they learnt", for the course tutors learnt too from the experience. During the month in Wuhan, the course tutors had many opportunities to discuss with the course participants, individually or in small groups, problems and difficulties the Wuhan teachers encountered in language teaching. These included the lack of financial support from the government and how this had affected the development of English language education in schools; the low status of teachers in terms of remuneration and how this had affected the morale and performance of English teachers; the enormous class size and how this had affected the zeal of the teacher and the learners alike. Exploring ways of overcoming the problems with the course participants was itself a learning experience that stimulated professional development on the part of the course tutors.

As to how a similar course can be better run in future, our own suggestion is that the course duration should be reduced to two weeks, and held in a more favourable season of the year. The initial preference for a long course proved to be an unwise choice. A shorter course would have the advantage of attracting more volunteers to join the teaching team. The weather factor is important because it would be much easier to sustain interest in both teaching and learning in more pleasant weather.

## Concluding Remarks

The pilot course was run. Where do we go from here? While we are pending decisions as to whether to offer the same course again in 1995 or to organize another project, we hope other organizations will consider making some contribution to the educational development of China. We, who are living and working in an advanced society, are never short of opportunities or resources for up-dating ourselves professionally. Sharing our professional knowledge and skills with English teachers in China is a contribution that we can make with little difficulty.

I hope this experience-sharing paper will arouse the interest of many readers to think of similar or different feasible ways of contributing knowledge, talents, time and resources to the improvement of English teaching in China, which will serve the dual purpose of stimulating professional development of teachers on both sides of the border.

## Appendix 1

### ENGLISH SUMMER COURSE, WUHAN 1994

| | | **USE OF ENGLISH**<br>9.00-10.15 a.m. | **METHODOLOGY**<br>10.45 a.m.-12.00 noon | **LANGUAGE ACTIVITIES**<br>2.30-4.00 p.m. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Week 1 | | | | |
| Monday | 18/7 | Introduction | Language Teaching Principles & Skills | Activities |
| Tuesday | 19/7 | Language Forms | Introduction to Reading Skills | " |
| Wednesday | 20/7 | Language Forms | The Teaching of Grammar | " |
| Thursday | 21/7 | Oral Practice | The Teaching of Pronunciation | " |
| Friday | 22/7 | Language Forms | The Teaching of Listening | " |
| Week 2 | | | | |
| Monday | 25/7 | Language Forms | Lesson Planning | " |
| Tuesday | 26/7 | Language Forms | The Teaching of Reading Comprehension | " |
| Wednesday | 27/7 | Language Forms | Teaching through Language Activities | " |
| Thursday | 28/7 | Oral Practice | The Teaching of Spoken English | " |
| Friday | 29/7 | Listening Practice | Tutorial | " |
| Week 3 | | | | |
| Monday | 1/8 | Language Forms | Marking & Corrections | " |
| Tuesday | 2/8 | Comprehension | The Teaching of Extensive Reading | " |
| Wednesday | 3/8 | Practical Writing | The Teaching of Writing | " |
| Thursday | 4/8 | Oral Practice | Presentation of Lessons | " |
| Friday | 5/8 | Language Forms | Tutorial | " |
| Week 4 | | | | |
| Monday | 8/8 | Comprehension | Language Testing | " |
| Tuesday | 9/8 | Vocabulary Enrichment | The Teaching of Vocabulary | " |
| Wednesday | 10/8 | Practical Writing | Presentation of Lessons | " |
| Thursday | 11/8 | Oral Practice | Organizing an English Department | " |
| Friday | 12/8 | Listening Practice | Course Evaluation / Book Display | End-of-course Ceremony |

Topics for language form sessions: Tenses
Preposition & phrasal verbs
Articles
Agreement
Conjunction
Discourse markers
Participles
Conditionals
Adjectives & adverbial phrases

**Author**

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# 徵 稿

教育曙光整年徵稿。歡迎教師、學校行政人員、輔導工作者、教育學者及研究人員投稿，發表他們從研究和實踐所得的新思維和新啓示。

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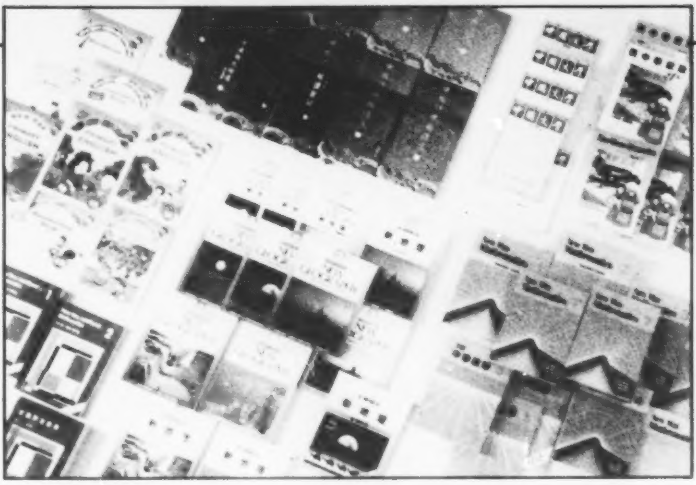

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